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FOR THE YEAR 1828.

VOLUME III.

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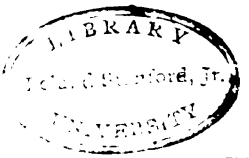

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ADVERTISEMENT.

Unexpected circumstances have prevented the preparation of a closing retrospect of the year, and have also limited the space assigned for intimating the course intended to be pursued in the arrangement of our next volume.

It may be sufficient for the friends of education and the patrons of the Journal to be apprized that the work is to be continued, and to be improved, as is hoped, by the introduction of a wider range of subjects, and especially of topics connected with *practical science and useful information*. Teachers and parents will, in this way, it is thought, find it a work more serviceable to their respective purposes, as it will embrace a larger supply of materials for mental cultivation and enjoyment; while, by yielding something of its exclusively professional character, it will afford the wider scope for general and interesting views of subjects important to every class of readers.

It is intended, in a word, to render the publication acceptable and useful as a *family book*, while it shall still continue to introduce most frequently topics connected with education. These will generally be offered in the form of *original articles*, prepared with an express reference to the wants of society, and the condition of schools in the United States.

The *American Lyceum*, that useful and prosperous institution, which is so rapidly extending itself throughout New-England, will receive particular attention; and a part of every number will be assigned to its particular objects,—embracing all interesting intelligence connected with its progress, short and familiar treatises on useful subjects, and occasionally a selection of the lectures and addresses delivered to the societies which compose its local or associated branches. Arrangements to this effect have been made with Mr. Holbrook, whose name in connexion with this institution is already familiar to our readers. The editor's prospects of efficient aid from various quarters not hitherto drawn upon, are such as enable him to offer in the ensuing volume a range and variety of original matter heretofore wanting.

It will not perhaps be deemed improper to mention, at this moment, the need of a still more extensive and liberal support than the Journal has yet received. Those who take a personal interest in the subject of education, and who deem it an object to continue the existence of a periodical devoted chiefly to it, are respectfully reminded that it is through a little exertion on their part, towards enlarging the circulation of the work, that its most effective support is to be derived.

The new proprietors of the Journal take it up with the intention of giving, if possible, a fresh impulse to all its interests; and their exertions to this end will, it is to be hoped, be met by a corresponding increase of general patronage. WILLIAM RUSSELL.

Boston, *December* 22, 1828.

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AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

NO. I. JANUARY, 1828. VOL. III.

INTRODUCTION.

At the commencement of another volume, it may be useful to give a brief sketch of the course meant to be pursued during the present year. The subject to which the Journal is devoted, is so extensive, and so copious in detail, that, at present, we can do no more than select a few of the leading topics intended for our future numbers; and present them in those lights in which we wish them to be viewed, when discussed at greater length, in separate articles.

Our chief object will be, as heretofore, *to furnish information on the subject of education*, in its various departments,—to present to our readers the more interesting and useful parts of valuable works—whether practical or theoretic; and to communicate intelligence of the progress of instruction, in public and private seminaries, American or foreign. Our object is not to be exclusive advocates of any system, but to use our endeavours to make our readers thoroughly acquainted with education as a science and as an art; and in doing so, to give accounts of particular methods as a *part*, only of the *whole* subject.

It has, perhaps, been true, that, in our past volumes, much space has been occupied with *new methods* and with *new books*. A little consideration, however, will convince candid minds, that the attempt to furnish full information of the progress of improvement, must of necessity bring forward much that is new. But this circumstance can never prove either that what is old

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and comparatively familiar is useless, or that innovation is necessarily improvement. Our future course, therefore, in this respect, can produce no essential change in the complexion of the Journal. Justice to our subject requires full and adequate statements of new systems, new books, and new institutions. These we shall continue to communicate, as far and as often as opportunity admits. But we must once for all disclaim the unwelcome responsibility which has been devolved on us of being held accountable for the character of every article which enters into our work. We wish to leave our readers free to judge for themselves of the correctness of opinions and the expediency of methods, and to apply or reject proposed changes, as the circumstances of particular schools or teachers may direct.

It would be a very acceptable aid to our exertions, if instructers and parents of different and even of opposite views, would favour us with their sentiments freely expressed. *Discussion* is peculiarly favourable to the development of truth on the subject of education. Success in imparting instruction depends on very wide views of the human mind and its capacities and tendencies. There never was and never will be, probably, any one method of teaching, or any one view of education, which can be held up as forming a universal system. Minds are infinitely various : the cultivation and development of the mind, therefore, can never be advantageously confined to one channel. The teacher, as well as the taught, requires peculiar and personal expedients, adapted to individuals rather than to classes; and very often, we conceive, the success of education depends more on these than on any correctness of theory, or facility of mechanical detail, adapted to the greatest possible number of cases.

An illustration exactly in point on this subject, is afforded in the case of *mutual instruction*. Some teachers have used this method to great advantage, and think it the happiest combination of measures which has yet been attempted for facilitating the business of instruction ; and others have, after a fair trial, rejected it, as unfavourable both to good discipline and to mental improvement. This latter case has actually been the result in several schools in this city.

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This, however, is only one of many instances which might be brought forward to prove that a careful consideration of differential points of circumstance, must always be regarded in education. A system which is found very successful in a given country in Europe, may fail, when applied in the United States. Let us take, for example, the system of government adpoted in the Hazelwood school,* by which the actual discipline is, to a great extent, devolved on the scholars themselves, and with much practical success. In several cases in which this plan has been adopted in this country, it has failed entirely. Its formality has generated a contempt for it, which the utmost energy of the teacher could not counteract. It has led to a lax state of discipline, and produced noisy and disorderly schools. Perhaps, the failure has arisen from the error of applying the system to schools where there was too large a proportion of very young scholars—unfit, therefore, to govern themselves by any system of rewards and punishments.

Another instance of European methods of instruction being found inapplicable to schools on this side of the Atlantic, occurs in what has rather unjustly been denominated the *Hamiltonian method* of teaching languages. The peculiar recommendation of this system is, as most of our readers are aware, that it imparts language through a familiarity with words, rather than a formal knowledge of rules of grammar—virtually teaching all languages, whether modern or ancient, by colloquial methods. This system is no doubt, natural and easy; and, with uncommon vigilance on the part of the teacher, would probably be found the most thorough as well as the most expeditious. To adopt it, however, the teacher and his scholars, must be furnished with books adapted to it; and though several such works have been prepared and published in England, they are not to be had in this country,—we speak at present of the Latin language. An instructer, therefore, can attempt it only with vast labour to himself and his pupil, or apply it very superficially. The merits of this improvement, therefore, cannot be satisfactorily ascertained, till books expressly adapted to it shall have been

* See vol. II. p. 257 of this Journal.

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published here, or imported in sufficient numbers to make a trial practicable. Books of this description will soon, we hope, be accessible to our teachers; as much success seems to have followed the attempts made abroad to introduce this practical method of teaching, and, in substance, it has received the approbation of many of the most eminent writers on education in England and other countries of Europe.* Till such aids, however, can be commanded, no fair experiment of the system can be effected.

Another point regarding which mistakes have arisen, from a hasty adoption of sentiments current in European countries, and particularly in English works, is that of *classical learning*. In the colleges and universities of Europe too large a proportion of time has doubtless been consumed in pursuits purely literary: the mind has been highly cultivated in one or a few departments, and too much neglected in others. The heads of those institutions, themselves, have become conscious of this fact; as the increasing patronage extended to practical and useful science plainly shews. Education, to be fully beneficial, must be modified by the changes of opinions effected by the progress of the mind; and this law has not, perhaps, been duly observed in the plan of most of the higher seminaries of learning among us, as well as in most nations of Europe. The course of wise reformation, however, would not, we think, necessarily suggest the demolition of the venerable fabric of ancient literature. There is great danger, here, of the zeal, which degenerates into frenzy, and sweeps away the good and the useful along with the worthless. The true interests of education, and the true interests of society, in this country, at least, where classical learning has never yet attained to the same exorbitant disproportion as in England, would be benefited more by bringing up the practical and the useful branches of instruction in all seminaries, to the level of literature, than by bringing down the latter to the level of the former,—for the poor satisfaction of apparent conformity or consistency. It is, indeed, to be desired that less time comparatively were spent in acquiring the ancient

* See the successive articles in vol. II, beginning at page 178.

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languages. But we should look for this, as we do for every other change in education, as one which is to come through the regular channel of progressive improvement, and not by premature or violent measures. The course taken in our own efforts, and the intention of several of our articles on this subject, has, as we mentioned in the closing Retrospect of last year,* been misunderstood. This topic, however, it is unnecessary to resume.

In regard to this and all the departments of education just mentioned, we would content ourselves with repeating that a free discussion of them in our pages, would be highly gratifying to us; and, we think, equally so to our readers. Such discussion we would now earnestly invite; and the sole reason why it has not hitherto appeared, is, that our communications have been thus far chiefly of one complexion; and to furnish a decent proportion on each side of the question was a thing, therefore, impracticable.

While on this topic, we beg permission to say a few words on the subject of *contributions to our work*. The peculiar department to which the Journal is restricted, renders it impossible to command articles by pecuniary inducements. Experienced teachers and parents are those on whom such a work must be chiefly dependent for original matter of true value; and this, we think, it is in the power of both these classes of persons to furnish in various forms. To such contributors, whatever be their peculiar views, we shall always feel indebted:—not that we think the value of our publication depends on its quantity of original matter, as long as there are so many excellent works of former times now lying unread and neglected, and so many issuing from the press at home and abroad, which, from various causes, have but a limited circulation, or which contain matter deserving more extensive perusal. A judicious observation, however, directed to the circumstances and wants of our own community, would be a great aid to direct and practical improvement. For much of such aid we must necessarily be indebted to individual interest and effort;—and do we err in saying

* See vol. II, p. 757.

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that the nature of our publication is such as gives it a claim on some of the leisure moments of most parents and teachers ?

In adverting to the prospects of another year, we cannot deny ourselves the encouragement of hoping that *a still more extensive interest will be taken in the existence of a work devoted exclusively to education.* If rightly conducted, it is not a benefit to one class of individuals only, it is connected with the interests of the whole community. To this country, emphatically, it is important that every aid to the improvement and the dissemination of instruction, should meet with generous—at least with adequate support. Public opinion gives the character to education here, more definitely and surely than in an any other part of the world. Some means are needed for the diffusion of correct and liberal views of education, in order to keep the measure of actual exertion up to the privileges of the people :—not only to aid the wider dissemination of knowledge, the multiplication of schools and other institutions ; but to maintain in these the spirit of progress,—to give a living efficacy to all the means of education, and to call in more and more of those aids to human improvement, which the ceaseless action of the mind is continually offering in increasing numbers and power.

The excellent system of common schools is of little avail without good teachers and good books. But these we have at present no appropriate means of furnishing to a sufficient extent. Improvement, no doubt, is going on, but by no means in proportion to the need of it ; and as long as we have no established seminary to give the teachers of common schools the education which they themselves need, this must continue to be the case. A work devoted to the sole object of promoting education, ought in this state of things, to be useful to parents and school committees, as well as teachers. Till some measures more definite shall have been adopted, would not the necessary portion of public money be usefully expended, by every school committee, in providing themselves with such a work ?

Those of our readers who have perused our past volumes, are sufficiently aware that a considerable number of our pages has always been assigned to *domestic and parental education.*

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This is a subject which would seem to admit with peculiar advantage of the aid arising from occasional reading. In this department, we have endeavoured to furnish, every month, some important principles as expressed by the most esteemed writers of our own and of former times. The articles under this head, if selected from the body of the Journal, would now form a volume composed of some of the happiest thoughts of eminent minds on this important subject. The interest expressed by some of our readers in this branch of our exertions, has convinced us that our efforts have not been altogether useless. But the actual condition of our subscription list, encouraging as it is for the present stage of our progress, would indicate but a very partial attention on the part of parents to the assistance derived from such sources as we have mentioned. That parents should enter with interest and intelligence into the subject of education, is the only good ground for the expectation of general and effectual improvement in any of its departments.

In *the plan and arrangement of the Journal* no important change, as far as we can judge, is required. The *miscellaneous articles and the intelligence* will continue much as hitherto, but will, it is hoped, be found still more useful and interesting from the increasing supply of valuable matter from foreign publications. As intimated in No. 23, we intend to present to our readers the best selection we can make from the most recent and interesting publications from France and Germany, as well as from England; arrangements having been made for the regular reception of periodical and other works on education, from these countries.

The *reviews* contained in the Journal, will differ from former articles of this kind, chiefly in possessing more of a direct reference to the works reviewed. They will be more analytical in their character, and consist more in extracts; as the influence of reviews restricted to the expression of personal opinion, is, we think, a doubtful thing in works of any kind. A fair analysis of works, with occasional extracts from them, would, perhaps, be more just to authors and more useful to teachers.

In our *notices* of school books and of books for children,—

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since this class of publications consists principally of tales or stories, from which it is difficult to give specimens,—we must pursue our former course of attempting a brief and general character of such works, selecting those which appear best adapted to promote improvement.

As for books of a bad tendency, or those got up merely for the purpose of being sold, we have neither time, nor disposition, nor space in our pages, to devote to them. We shall still act, in this respect, on the principle of selection; deeming it of more importance to bring forward one work written with accuracy of thought and expression, and breathing a good intention, than to hold up to censure scores of volumes, bespeaking ignorance and pretension, and carrying, perhaps, their own sentence of condemnation, in their bad grammar and worse printing.

FRENCH SOCIETY FOR ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

[The following article from the Journal d' Education, No. 5, Feb. 1816, gives the first Annual Report submitted to the above society. The report is interesting chiefly as a record of the progress of philanthropic effort for the dissemination of instruction among the body of the French people. Schools for young children had been previously few, and not well conducted; and the exertions of the society had been attended with extensive success.

Societies formed, like that in France, on the principle of charities, and designed to extend the blessings of education to a population otherwise destitute of it, are, it is true, unnecessary in this country. But it is not less true that a society for the improvement of education in the United States, would afford much valuable aid to improvement in all our literary institutions, by furnishing means and resources which the most diligent exertions of individuals could never command.]

Report of the labours of the Society of Paris for elementary instruction, during the last six months of 1815,—*made to the general meeting of the* 10*th of January*, 1816. By M. le Comte Alex. de Laborde, General Secretary.

The session was opened at seven o'clock. A numerous as-

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sembly, composed of the most distinguished members of the society, and several ladies who make a part of it, were present at this general meeting of the subscribers, the first since the foundation of the society.

M. le baron de Gerando occupied the chair. The president offered from the Society for British Schools six copies of the report made to this society upon the labors of the last six months.

The order of the day called upon the general secretary to make a report of the labours of the society during the last six months of 1815. The Count de Laborde spoke, and expressed himself as follows:

Gentlemen, you have all visited this ancient church, lately filled with arms and instruments of warfare, now consecrated to charity and beneficence. You have here seen those intelligent and docile children, instructing each other, governing themselves, communicating to each other the lessons of morality, the precepts of faith, and the useful knowledge of society. Attracted by this new interest, numerous spectators usually animate this scene. Here, are young teachers who come to study the system that they may carry it into the country. Here, noble friends of humanity, whose riches are the patrimony of the poor, observe silently this new benefit which they already long to diffuse. Farther on, 'Brothers of the Christian Schools,' and 'Sisters of Saint Joseph,' are consulting the professors upon the means of introducing this change into their houses, and thus doubling the number of their pupils and their good works. In short, strangers traverse the hall and applaud the success of this rising institution, remembering that, some months before, they saw our compatriots feeling the same sentiment among them. During this time the children, affected by the interest they inspire, but attentive to the lesson which they are learning, already feel in their hearts that self respect, that love of goodness which will not abandon them through life. What joy beams from their countenances at the least reward! what profound grief overwhelms them at the least punishment! Well, gentlemen, this touching spectacle, this happy institution is your work: it has been the aim of your society, the new progress and happy results of which, each year will bring you tidings.

It is a great social work that you have undertaken, gentlemen, that of giving to a whole people a moral and religious education, that of sharing with the poor the means of cultivation that may draw them from painful situations, and the means of

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virtue which may aid them in supporting these with resignation; for where would resignation be, without instruction to enlighten, morality to direct, and religion to support and console? This plan appears immense, when we contemplate solely its advantages or its difficulties; but it soon seems of more easy accomplishment, when we have traversed the route which may lead to it; when we become acquainted with that excellent system, which condenses time, diminishes expense, enlivens study, and removes difficulties; a system of which we can no longer contest the benefit or avert the progress. I shall not enter here, gentlemen, into the development of a system with which you are acquainted; I shall confine myself to reminding you that it consists chiefly in the instruction of children by one another; that is to say, by a small number of the most skilful among them, and who fill the office of tutor to their companions, under the superintendence of a single teacher. From thence arise to children those serious and gentle relations which already transport them into society, develop their faculties, enlighten their minds, excite their emulation, and teach them early justice to one another, the rights of authority and consequently the duties of obedience.

This ingenious mechanism is not a doctrine, is not a science; but a powerful means, applicable to all sciences and to all doctrines. Invented in France, but carried to perfection among our neighbours, it has just been brought back to France, there to be perfected in its turn. The good effects which it already produces are owing chiefly to the formation of your society, which has rapidly increased, and which includes now the best informed and most distinguished characters of the capital.

To arrange with order the labours of this year, I shall divide them into two distinct classes, under the name of *internal labours, or labours on committees; and external labours, or labours in the schools.* The former are so many private boards, composed of zealous and well informed men, who prepare questions and discuss them, before they are submitted to the assemblies of the council. The latter are so many organized establishments, which act and practise upon the system, and receive impulses and life from the former. A rapid glance at these different labours will prove to you, gentlemen, that those whom you have charged with them have been worthy of your confidence, and have, perhaps, even surpassed your hopes.

Internal labours, or labours on Committees.

According to the terms of your Regulations, there should

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have been five committees in the council of administration; but before they had commenced their functions, there existed a head committee, chosen from among you, and formed at the very period of your first meetings. This committee, placed near the administration, has been a very useful medium between you and authority, to support you with its power, and to enlighten this power by your knowledge. Having at its disposal some means of money and influence, it employed them immediately in founding the first elementary school, in sending to London for the excellent professor who directs it, in composing nearly a hundred tables, and, in a word, in presenting a pattern of the plan, that all might be able to judge of its advantages. This committee is presided over by the Count de Chabrol, prefect of the Seine, and to whom we owe so many thanks. This magistrate, appreciating the importance of your institution, made it known to the minister of the interior, and has received from him authority to second it with all his efforts. The labours which he superintends are in a direction parallel and relative to the operations of the society. The preface informs us of the resolutions he takes, and the measures which he thinks it his duty to adopt; and the society gives him a regular account of the offers it receives, the demands which are made upon it, and the improvements which it projects. Happy concurrence of power and zeal, action and thought, labours and sacrifices, directed towards a common end and for a general good!

It was no easy task, gentlemen, to translate into our language, to subject to the rules of our orthography and our grammar, a plan of instruction new as a whole and in its details; and above all, with the intention of not following servilely either of the two methods in use in England, those of Bell and Lancaster, but of taking from each what should seem preferable, and even of carrying them both to perfection. To succeed in this undertaking, a strong inclination and entire devotion have been necessary in those who have given themselves up to the task. Our schools present, now, the union of these two methods carried to perfection. The classifications and movements resemble the schools of Lancaster, with not so many exterior signs, punishments and rewards, and gymnastic exercises. The lessons, especially in arithmetic, have more analogy with the method of Bell, to which we have added successively some of the inventions of Pestalozzi, the Abbe Gauthier, the Count de Lasteyrie and Choron, after having perfected the primer, and having rendered it more methodical for reading, by founding it

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upon natural analogy, have endeavoured to establish models of a *running* handwriting, which joins to beauty of form the advantage of easy execution, and which being taken from engraved copies, might become a *national handwriting*.

Indeed, gentlemen, is it not proper, at the period when all children are going to learn to write, to endeavour to make their handwriting nearly uniform, if not absolutely similar? This custom would put an end to the disparities and disorder which prevail in the handwriting of the inferior classes in France. You may already observe, upon the slates submitted to your inspection, that the characters are of a simpler form, and more easily read. They have also been employed for some time in correcting and completing the tables which are used in the classes, and in supplying the want of an elementary work sufficiently perfect to be adopted in all the schools. Upon the suggestion of one of our colleagues, a prize is to be founded by the society for the best work of this kind, a work which is absolutely wanting in our language, and which does not exist very complete in any other.

The method once established, it was necessary to begin to instruct a certain number of professors, who might be able immediately to direct the schools which were forming, and to be sent into the departments. It was necessary to provide, at the same time, means of instruction for persons who should come to study the system; and to this your council has paid most particular attention. Several members, who succeed each other in this function, are charged with examining the certificates for capacity and good conduct, presented by those who desire to be instructed in the new method. When this examination is satisfactory, the candidates are admitted to the existing schools, and to pursue a particular course which M. Martin has established in his own house, with a degree of disinterestedness and zeal above all praise. However moderate may be the regulations imposed upon the teachers who are called upon to govern the new schools, we remark a great variety of sentiments among those who present themselves to be so employed. The course of M. Martin is already of twelve masters and fifteen mistresses, all persons capable, or who will very soon be capable of directing a school with perfect success. The professors in pursuance of this system, will no longer have any of the painful functions of their situation. All the movements of instruction, all the minute, disagreeable, and servile part, is performed by the children themselves; and the master is rather an administrator, a superintend-

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ent, a regent over the classes. A crowd of little fellow-labourers spare him the pain of his labours, yet allow him all the merit of their success; a happy combination, which, as far as we have had an opportunity of observing, makes labour a sport, science an exercise, and authority a reward.

The Duke de Raguse, who, since the origin of our institution, has felt its advantages, having conceived the noble project of founding, at his own expense, a school according to the new method, in the principal place in his dominions, near Chatillon-sur-Seine, has just sent M. Henart, a teacher in that city, to learn the method.

Whatever zeal a great number of young people may manifest for this excellent mode of instruction, it must be confessed that there exists, among old teachers, a kind of distrust, fear, and coldness toward our schools, which does not appear to me well considered. The most part imagine that the method tends to diminish their importance, and especially their number. This is an error; the new method does not tend to diminish the number of teachers, but to increase the number of pupils. If teachers wish to adopt these simple and economical means themselves, (and they will find every facility to learn the method in our schools,) they may increase their revenues much. Our aim is not to change existing institutions, but to improve them. We do not pretend to compose a science, but to propagate a mechanism, an instrument for the intellectual faculties applicable to all sciences.

One of the most trying functions, gentlemen, has been to seek and dispose of places for the new schools; and we cannot render too many thanks for the zeal which M. Jomard has displayed, since the origin of this institution, in this difficult employment. Charged by the prefect with this labour, he has given himself entirely up to it, and the fruit of the steps he has taken has been the complete organization of four schools, and preparations for twelve others, which will be established this very year, in the different districts of Paris. One of the advantages, but also one of the difficulties of the new system, is to give to the children much more space than in the old schools. In the latter the children are crowded upon each other round the walls, while the middle is left free. With this arrangement the eyes of the master can never overlook them all at once; and while study is going on on one side, dissipation and disorder often prevail on the other. The first provision for a school, according to Bell and Lancaster, should be a large oblong space, well aired and

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well lighted, where the benches, placed in an amphitheatre, may permit all the motions of the scholars to be inspected. Such halls are most commonly found in old religious edifices, most of which were destroyed during the revolution, or have received a new destination. The prefect of the Seine has drawn up a list of several of these situations in each district; and he will employ himself in rendering them disposable for the foundation of new schools, in proportion as funds shall be made for them, whether by the city of Paris, or by corporations, or generous individuals. The most important of all, and that which ought to fix the attention of the society, is a central school, which the prefect has a project for establishing within the compass of the Petits-Peres, near the Palais-Royal, or in the *Halle aux draps*. This school will contain five hundred boys in one room, and five hundred girls in another; and will present, in the centre of the capital, in the quarters of luxury and frivolity, the most perfect model of a moral and religious education.

You have thought, gentlemen, that, if it was important to found primary schools in the capital, it was not less so to diffuse this benefit in the departments; to call upon all those who interest themselves in the progress of civilization to concur in your beneficent views, to propagate and put in practice the new methods of instruction.

It is to attain this end that you have decreed that a Journal of Education should be published, the compiling of which should be superintended by a fifth committee; and the materials for which should be chiefly furnished by the society. Three numbers of this Journal have already appeared; and we may already predict the degree of interest and usefulness which this work will have, when establishments upon the new system shall be multiplied in France; it will then be a sort of archives, a repertory of all the progress which education will make, and of the happy effects which it will not fail to produce upon the manners and principles of the rising generation. This useful undertaking will not, however, be burdensome to the society; since a zealous and intelligent bookseller has been found, who undertakes to support the expenses of it, and even to divide the profits, if he reap any, with the society.

However, gentlemen, this bookseller would not be able, at first, to cover the expenses of publication, if a sufficient number of subscribers could not be found in the society itself; and it is upon your zeal that we call to second a means so important to the success of the institution.

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The first numbers of this journal have begun by making known to you the names, and an abridgment of the lives, of respectable persons who have been chosen as foreign associates, and who, for the most part, have testified their satisfaction in uniting in our intentions and seconding our labours. Since this epoch several other new associates, equally well recommended, have been admitted; and among others M. de Krivtzof, a colonel in the Russian service, who diligently attends our sessions, and who has prolonged his stay in Paris, to be better able to study and make known the system in his own country.

A committee is charged with the composition of a practical manual, to serve as a guide to the founders of new schools, and to the masters they shall employ. Since the first establishment of the system in France, the need has been felt of a work from which a school might be formed, without even the necessity of a teacher who had studied the mode of instruction. This work is already far advanced, and may appear towards the end of the winter. It will be composed of a general exposition of the theory, and a table of the separate labour of each class. To each of its divisions will be joined small cuts which will point out more clearly the respective places of the monitors and pupils, and will give an idea of the principal gymnastic movements. Your committee has thought that this work should not be voluminous, that it may be within reach of all circumstances; and that it should be clear and precise, to be within the comprehension of all capacities.

Among the internal labours of the society, we ought to number the periodical meetings of your council and administration, the communications which it has received, or the memorials which have been read at the sessions. Permit me, gentlemen, to place here the name of our worthy president: custom may, perhaps, oppose it, but his labours and his services excuse me for doing it. You have all read with lively interest his excellent report upon the new methods, and that which precedes the organization of our society. You have no less admired his instructions upon the means of forming masters, and adapting the methods to schools already established. It is to him, also, that we owe the draught of the elementary work for which the society proposes founding a prize; a draught which is, in itself, an entire work. But these labours are nothing in comparison with steps he has taken and efforts which he must have made to throw light upon the aim and the advantages of our institution,

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to ensure its success. This account of its success will be more satisfactory to his heart, than the praises which would wound his modesty.

Most of the sessions have been distinguished by interesting communications, or useful discussions. I regret not being able to point them all out, and even being obliged to confine myself to a simple abstract of principles.

In one of the first sessions, the secretary general made known to the society, the zeal of the Duchess of Duras in assisting his labours. This lady, more distinguished by her character than by her rank, did not confine herself to contributing to the expenses of the establishment of our first school; she founded another entirely at her own expense, in her own house. We shall speak of it in the second part of this report. In the following session, the secretary general made known to the council the generous offer of M. Louis Grefuhle to establish at his own expense, and to maintain a school in the place which might be assigned for it. The council has manifested how much it was touched with this noble proceeding. Since that time M. Grefuhle has himself inspected all the quarter of the Chaussée-d'Antin, where he lives, without being able to meet with a convenient place; but the society will learn with pleasure that the prefect of the Seine destines for it the edifice which is to be constructed in the Court des Petits-Peres, and which will serve as a model to the institution.

May such examples be followed, gentlemen, and we shall soon have the pleasure of seeing our labours and our usefulness, confined to composing eulogies or thanks.

In the session of the 9th of August, M. Jullien made a report upon the method of Pestalozzi, and the analogy which it has in several points with those of Bell and Lancaster.

In the same session M. Amoros read a very interesting memorial upon this same method of Pestalozzi, and upon the success which it has had in Spain.

M. Basset read a scheme of moral elementary instruction. Colonel Stanhope, deputy from the Society of Education in London to our society, presented himself at the session of the 22d of August, to assist in our labours, and to inform us of the satisfaction felt in England at the success of our efforts. The *proces verbal* of the meeting of the 3d June, shows what a deep interest the British committee always takes in our labours; that of the second meeting, held in November, and which the Duke of Kent has been pleased to send to each member of your coun-

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cil, contains still more flattering praises. The meeting in that session, voted thanks to our society; and it was very gratifying, gentlemen, to some of our countrymen who were present, to see that union of generous and enlightened men, so lately our enemies, all rise spontaneously to render homage to the efforts of our rising institution, and unite with us in our efforts for the good of our fellow beings. The Duke of Kent's speech contains this remarkable passage concerning us: 'May these efforts of the French, be the prelude to harmonious sentiments and right understanding between the two countries, and for ever prevent the return of wars so prejudicial to both!' These words from the son of a venerable king are worthy of being heard by the subjects of an enlightened monarch. Indeed, gentlemen, if any thing can destroy among men these national hostilities, these prohibitory systems, these sad effects of commercial rivalries, is it not a greater diffusion of knowledge, a general education which may enlighten individuals and nations, upon their true interests, which are never found in the midst of conquests and devastations? A little industry among a people makes them devise war either to obtain or avoid monopoly: much industry leads them back to peace, as the only means of exchange and consumption.

In the session of the 18th of October, the Abbé Gaulthier, that faithful friend of children, and their distinguished guide, paid his respects to the society by presenting them with some new examples of hand-writing which he procured abroad.

In the session of the 13th of November, M. Bally gave an account of the proceedings of Professor Daubenton for teaching children to read with more facility.

The extract from a letter of the superior of the convent of the Ursulines de Tours, communicated by the Duchess de Duras, at the same session, proves that the public education of children in Franche-Comté, since the year 1606, had much analogy with the new method. Some very interesting documents furnished by M. Philpin de Percey in relation to the institution of the *Frères des Ecoles Chrètiennes* established at Langres, afford similar instances; and we are happy to seize this opportunity to render homage to that respectable order which we call upon most earnestly to join us; the adoption of our method would be putting the finishing stroke to theirs, and would acquire for them a new title to public gratitude.

In the session of the 13th of December, a member made a report concerning those children who are abandoned in conse-

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quence of the disgrace of their parents, and who, not having participated in their crimes, have yet been sharers in their punishment.—Taking this opportunity, the chevalier Cadet de Gassicourt would fix the attention of the society upon another class of children, placed in greater danger to themselves and to society; children condemned for thefts or other crimes, to temporary confinement. The picture which the reporter draws of the vices and habits of these children inspires us with horror; and yet it is not exaggerated. We have visited those gloomy abodes, those dens of corruption, and we have been terrified by the degradation that reigns there. Two hundred of these children are mingled with criminal adults, who encourage them and teach them the theory of theft, as composedly as we profess sciences in our academies. Many among them have been convicted two or three times; there are some who have committed assassinations and the murder of parents; very few know how to read and write, but almost all know perfectly the different degrees of penalties pronounced by the code for the offences committed by minors. The prisons for girls offer the same picture; and it is not uncommon to see children of nine or ten years of age among the unfortunate females, who are shut up by the police every day. Let us implore the authorities, gentlemen, to separate these children as soon as possible, from the contagious air which surrounds them; to remove them from the veterans of crime who are achieving their corruption. There are still means to bring them back to virtuous sentiments: let us not despair of an age so tender. Already the prefect of the police is busying himself in finding an edifice to confine them in distinct prisons; one destined for girls, the other for boys. He has chosen an ecclesiastic to instruct them; but this measure would be only a palliative, if we do not destroy in these children the principles of ignorance and idleness, which ever lead them back to evil. It is only by diverting their attention by new ideas, and by making known to them new pleasures, that we can give them new principles. The habit of goodness is contracted as easily as the habit of evil is acquired. Your council, then, has thought that one of the most useful labours which the society could undertake, during the present year, would be to establish a school in the new prison for these children. It has named a committee charged with taking observations upon this subject; and your committee of funds intend to propose to you to consecrate a sum of money to this purpose. We shall have, to manage this undertaking, one of our colleagues, who con-

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ceived the first idea of it, and whose name has appeared for the last forty years at the head of all useful institutions and all benevolent establishments. The Duke de la Rochefoucauld-Liancourt developed a long time since the plan of a new system of labour and discipline for the prisons. He has been authorized to make the attempt by a royal ordinance of the 14th of September, 1814; and the new method of instruction which he proposes to introduce there, will second in a powerful manner, his zeal and his knowledge.

The proposition of a member to examine the utility of introducing into schools those elements of drawing that are interesting to workmen, and some notion of music, as is the custom in several schools in Germany, has given the Society an excellent memorial from M. le Général de la Harpe; a memorial which we regret not being able to present entire. This worthy philanthropist proposes to limit instruction in our schools to simple and useful knowledge; that is to say, to knowing how to read, write, and count, as indispensable to men for the direction of their affairs, and the preservation of their memories. He persuades us not to justify, by higher pretensions, the inquietude which would not fail to be manifested about the kind of education which we desire to give to the people. We all, I think, share in this opinion. Far from us, indeed, gentlemen, be the wish to inspire these children with the ambition that too elevated knowledge gives. Far be it from us to seek to remove from their situation those whom we desire to attach more strongly to their prince and their country. Our wishes, on the contrary, are that they may take more pleasure in their situation, by knowing their duty better; that they may support their destiny with more fortitude, by feeling within themselves more means of ameliorating it. We seek to develope their understandings only to speak more surely to their hearts, to strike their reason more vividly, to secure their happiness more promptly.

PARISH SCHOOLS OF SCOTLAND.

[Owing to the length of this article, in the form in which it occurs in the Edinburgh Review, and the urgency of other matter in our own pages, to present it entire in one No. was found impossible. The interesting nature of the subject itself, and

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the importance of the matter contained in the present article, even when read separately, seemed to require a place for it in the Journal; though at the risk of being less intelligible to those of our readers who may not have perused it in its original place, or who may not have an opportunity of reading it in connexion with the extracts in our last number.]

The existing condition and prospects of our parish schools may be judged of by two simple facts. 1st, Although there was formerly no written rule prescribing the branches of knowledge which the masters should be capable of teaching, yet, in point of fact, from the understood necessity of their situation, all of them were qualified to keep up the general education required for the whole middle rank of the community; and, in particular, no one could pretend to act as a parochial schoolmaster, without knowing Latin, and generally Greek too. This was positively enjoined by the Church courts; and in the year 1774, a proposed teacher was objected to before the General Assembly by the parishioners, on the single ground of his ignorance of the Roman language. The author of the "*Statement of the Experience*," says, very justly, that "When this ceases to be a valid objection in all cases, the parochial schools will no longer answer their original design." Now, although the general fitness of our schoolmasters be undoubted, we appeal to every one acquainted with the fact, whether there has not, of late years, been an increased difficulty of getting right men to take the situation, and whether, as an example of their declension, several subjects, formerly familiar, and, in particular, Latin, be not gradually disappearing from our schools. 2dly, A parish schoolmaster is naturally so much engrossed with the proper dignity and respectability of his peculiar business, that his voluntarily engaging in any other avocation, is conclusive evidence that his official emoluments are too small. Yet it is notorious, that they are often absolutely obliged to combine their office of schoolmaster with other most unworthy occupations. It is recorded that, in one case, the public teacher kept a shop; that in another, he was an auctioneer. Their being land-measurers is not uncommon; and the author of the "*Statement of the Experience*," after mentioning that one of them had practised as a country attorney, says, that in one place where the salary had been divided, "and the teachers were in a parity of wretchedness, we found one of the masters, a meritorious man in the habit, during every school vacation, of hiring himself as a day-labourer in a harvest field, to

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eke out the slender emoluments which kept himself, a wife, and children, in possession of the bare necessaries of life. The education of mere letters, which is effected by the hedge schools of Ireland, may be secured by such men; but moral influence they can have none."

How can we wonder at their being sometimes found in these disreputable employments, when we reflect that there are hundreds of them *whose whole emoluments are positively less than that of menial servants and artisans? A labourer, who has regularly half-a-crown a day, is better paid than the average of our parochial teachers.* Yet these are the men who are not only expected, but required, to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic—who, in addition to this, do in a great majority of instances, teach, and ought always to be able to teach Latin and geography; and who besides these often teach the elements of Greek, French, and mathematics. It is mortifying to see from these returns, that all these branches of education are actually taught at this moment, by persons whose whole emoluments do not amount to £25 a year.

It is not, however, by merely looking at sums, that we can ever determine the adequacy or inadequacy of official pay at different periods. Little satisfaction, for example, would be got, with reference to this question, by ascertaining, on the nicest principles of value, the exact proportion which £11, 2s. 3d., the highest salary in 1696, bears to £22, 4s. 5d. the highest in 1827. The only practical method of adjusting the comparative condition of public officers in different times, is to view them *relatively* to the rest of the community at each period. Now the station held by a parish schoolmaster formerly is perfectly well known. There was not a greater man in the parish except the minister. Indeed, he was not much inferior, in point of emolument to the minister—whose income, in 1696, was probably not, upon an average, £30—and not at all in mental acquirements. In the year 1706, the General Assembly passed an act, recommending those who had the appointmentof schoolmasters, "to prefer men *who have passed their course at college or universities.*" The fact, that men who had done so, were willing to undertake the duties of the parish school, is a sufficient mark of the station which a schoolmaster then occupied. Every class in the community has since made a start upward, of which our forefathers never dreamt, and which, if they were to return, would make them not know their own country. One of the first things they would look for, would be the schoolmaster; and, instead

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of finding him nearly at the head of every thing in the parish, they would be surprised to discover him far below the level of the average. They would find that, while the tenantry, the smaller merchants, manufacturers, and even the menials, had all advanced greatly, the public teacher had rather fallen lower. And they would lament this the more, when it was explained that their poverty was aggravated by the decay of many of the moral circumstances to which the schoolmaster once owed a great part of his respectability. The ancient reverence for those who kept the lamp of knowledge, has necessarily declined, according as its light has been divided among a greater number of hands. The respectability imparted to the school, by its being presided over by one who was qualified, and probably destined, to fill the church, is nearly at an end. And the increase of the population, while the number of teachers has remained stationary, has enabled whole districts and generations to grow up without any acquaintance with this part of our system. Our schoolmasters are still a singularly meritorious class of persons; far more learned than was to have been expected from the reward their learning meets with; faithful to their trust; of unimpeachable personal respectability; and perfectly worthy of being relied upon as the guardians of youthful knowledge and morality. No such public officers were ever obtained for the service of any country, for such remuneration. It is the highest evidence of their worth, as well as of the lingering respect which still attaches to their situation, that they have gone on so long in the silent and assiduous discharge of their duties,—*honoured by the notice of the legislature only once in a hundred and thirty years*,—while society has been moving past them, and all other public functionaries have been enabled to keep pace with it. They are declining unquestionably; but not nearly so much as might have been expected; and their declension is exactly the reason why their influence should be maintained, by increasing the pecuniary reward of their services, in proportion as other supports have been taken from them by the change of manners. It is most distressing to be obliged to contrast the personal decline of these men with that universal improvement of which they have been the chief causes.

Some are afraid of raising their salaries too high, because this may render them independent of their fees, and, of course, careless of their schools. There can be no doubt of the soundness of this principle, whether as applied to them or to any other man. But it is utterly preposterous to apply it to these

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parish teachers, who are not within many degrees of the line where the laziness arising from wealth is likely to begin. Twenty-two pounds sterling, we may rely on it, will not make even a Scotch schoolmaster too comfortable to work. And he can never get more than this without actually working; and he gets the excess exactly in proportion as he does work. But the hardship which we feel for, is, that in spite of all his working, he cannot make much more than these twenty-two pounds, or so much. Where his school is necessarily poor, he ought to be decently paid, otherwise no properly qualified person will take the place, and education will gradually get despised; and he ought to be well paid where it is rich, because it can only have become so, by his being an assiduous and able teacher. There is a point, no doubt, at which this must stop; but we have not come so near it yet as to make it worth while to keep it in view. The author of the "*Statement and Representation*," (whom we understand to be another respectable clergymen,) has proposed a remedy for this case, however, when it shall occur. The object of his representation is to suggest and explain a mode of making the salary above a certain sum, be in proportion to the quantity of scholars above a certain number,—which proportions are to be fixed according to an actual examination of the population and other circumstances of each parish. This is all quite right in principle, and is very well explained; but it appears too complicated to be practicable, and it provides for an evil of which there is no prospect. The fear that the Scotch parochial schoolmasters may get corrupted by excess of pay, is the most premature of all fears.

In erecting its own schools, the General Assembly, which has administered the funds intrusted to its care with singular judgment and economy, has felt itself unable to secure proper teachers, except by giving them *better* appointments than are to found in the establishment in the same places. Nevertheless, it has been surmised, but we cannot believe, that there is a desire to reject them all. It is said, (but the thing is incredible,) that there are some who do not see the propriety either of multiplying schools, or of elevating those that exist—who think that schoolmasters should be subjected to more summary justice than is found safe for any body else—that the second teacher, where there are two in a parish, ought to be left in nearly his present state of wretchedness;—that even the first ought not to get above a mite more than he has; and that, lest he should become slothful, from excess of worldly comfort, the habitation of

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him and his family should be rigidly restricted to two places to be called apartments,—one of which may be used as a kitchen, if he shall be so unreasonable as to have such a thing. This project, it is perfectly plain, *cannot* be defended as right in itself. All that will be said in behalf of it is, that it is necessary to be shabby towards the schoolmasters, from mercy to the landowners. But really, though we have all due tenderness for those unfortunate people who are oppressed by the possession of large estates, we cannot conceive how, even in their desperate circumstances, such a sum as £10 a year, scattered over a whole parish, can be talked of as a serious obstacle to a great national improvement like this. These gentlemen ought to recollect when they complain of paying for the schoolmaster, that it is they, beyond any other class of the community, who reap a direct patrimonial advantage from the orderly habits which are the results of parochial education. They gain in one year, by the absence of the poor's rates,—from which they are more protected by a respectsble schoolmaster than by any thing else, —far more than the additional salary would amount to in twenty. But, whoever pays them, the masters ought to be adequately paid; and if the heritors,—on whom this burden has hitherto fallen, and who, in return for it, enjoy the privilege of electing them, and of regulating the schools, cannot or will not contribute more, the public at large, which has a material interest in the education of its youth, ought clearly to be called upon. There is a direct precedent for this, in the recent augmentation of the small stipends of the Scotch clergy out of the public funds. The parochial schoolmasters are a part of our civil and ecclesiastical establishment; and so essential a part, that the clergy have ever been the first to acknowledge that, without them, the labours of the minister would be comparatively vain. The same views, therefore, that operated in favour of the clergyman ought to operate in favour of the teacher; with this mighty difference, however, that a small sum will go much farther in the latter case than it could have done in the former.

After all, however, there is only one wise course to follow in this matter;—which is to appoint a commission, consisting of a small number of persons, to investigate and report on the general state of education in Scotland. For, notwithstanding all the returns that have been obtained, and all the hypothetical computations by which they have been attempted to be mended, the full and exact truth has not, even yet, been nearly brought out. It is commonly supposed that it is necessary to be in a

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hurry, because the Act of 1803 expires in 1828. But this is a mistake. The statute contains a provision for a periodical adjustment of salaries at the end of each twenty-five years; and, therefore, one of these must be made in 1828. But, instead of expiring then, the Act goes on for ever. It may either be allowed to take its course, therefore, or things may be kept as they are for one year or two longer; but in no view is there the slightest apology for legislating rashly, because it is necessary to legislate rapidly. And, moreover, without being in a hurry at all, commissioners have ample time to investigate the whole facts, long before the expiration of the first period of twenty-five years, from the 11th of June 1803. There is much more to be done by such a commission, than merely to fix the proper salaries to be paid to the teachers. There is nothing in the internal economy or future prospects of Scotland more interesting than the general state of education, with reference not merely to the parochial schools, but to all the institutions of the country. The very existence of the commission for reforming our colleges, is of itself a reason for appointing another to investigate the condition of inferior seminaries. That commission can make no substantial change in the junior classes of the universities, particularly in the classical departments, without instantly affecting the higher schools, which, in their turn, must affect the lower. It is to be hoped that all of them will be called upon to improve themselves. Hence, in every view, our parochial schools are on the verge of a great change, one way or another. If they be left behind the age they will be ruined. But it is only a full and authoritative inquiry that can ascertain whether, in relation to what is around them, their progress is upwards or downwards. The condition of education in our large towns, to which the system of country parishes has not been as yet applied, is particularly worthy of investigation; especially, considering the increasing growth, and the peculiar composition of their population, and the number of private establishments which have sprung up to satisfy the craving for knowledge which distinguishes the times. The single fact, that while the parish schools were only about 942 in number in 1818, the unendowed private schools amounted to 2222; or, in other words, that *upwards of one half of the whole educated population* is in the hands of persons whose qualifications are no otherwise known to the laws than as they are liable to the mere *inspection* of the presbytery,—is, of itself, enough to show the necessity of a thorough and general inquiry.

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Scotland has peculiar claims upon the patronage of the state for her education. Her people have done more, in this respect, for themselves, than has been done by any other portion of the empire; and their merit was the greater, that they began in an age of darkness, and continued perseveringly through many ages of poverty, till at last they made their country an example to all the rest of Europe. It is surely worthy of an enlightened government to attempt to perpetuate this glory; and great will be the disgrace to the existing generation, if it shall allow this honourable peculiarity to become a matter of history, and not of practice. Take charge of it who may, the man who interferes successfully will do more for Scotland than could have been accomplished by any other exertion of patriotism.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Account of the Method of Instruction in the Primary School No. 1, of Cheshire, Connecticut.

[The following account will be found interesting from the natural and rational method of instruction which it delineates, and not less so from the attempt to introduce a new system in a school supported by the public money, and open to the full influence of popular impression.]

This school has been under present* superintendence since November, 1825; and has assumed its present character almost entirely from individual exertion. In most respects it is an individual undertaking; the public sentiment in reference to common school education in its neighbourhood, being graduated upon the popular system of instruction usually adopted in the primary schools of this state. Hence, measures tending to elevate and improve the character of that system are unpopular: the fear of innovations upon a system identified with the name of our forefathers, hangs like an *incubus*, upon every attempt at elevation or improvement. But few individuals have indicated direct interest in successful experiment. But few have supported personally the measures which have been taken to improve the character of the school. These have excited a favorable influence; have aided the instructer in obtaining his

* May, 1827.

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ends; and have been instrumental in preventing the opposition which has appeared at various times from going into angry action. They have likewise taken notice enough of the school to visit it; and acquaint themselves in some degree with the principles upon which it is governed and taught. Others know little of the school, but from juvenile description, and vague report. And prejudice prevents their making those direct inquiries and inspections, by which correctness of information is to be obtained. From the condition in which the school was found, at its commencement, it has been raised to its present standing by progressive steps. Comparatively little has at once been attempted. The endeavour to graduate improvement to the progress of public sentiment, has notwithstanding in some instances, been premature and large. More has been attempted at once, than that sentiment was ready to appreciate and support. Individual exertion has accomplished what a more liberal sentiment would have been forward to aid. And it is no more than justice to add, that prejudices seem gradually giving place to the convictions of successful experiment.

During the first term, under present superintendence, little more was attempted in the way of improvement, than the introduction of a few additional branches of study; improving the aspect and character of school instruction, by modes of communication better adapted to the genius of the young mind; and by attempts to modify and sustain the habits of youthful thought, and feeling, and action, through the medium of mild and conciliating measures and address. No radical change was attempted. Nor any demand for assistance made on the bounty of the district. These measures did not fail entirely of the desired effect; the unanimous approbation was given to the general proceedings of this term; and the next commenced under favorable impressions. The ostensible purpose of the instructer indicated nothing unfavourable to the established forms of instruction: there was no sign of innovation, either in measure, or sentiment.

These preliminary steps having been taken, and this favourable acceptance in the public mind obtained, it was thought timely to make the legitimate application of these advances, by bringing forward such improvements as were deemed practicable. Accordingly at the commencement of the second term alterations were made. In place of the distant and imperative manner of address and communication, so often conceived essential to the school room, habits of familiarity, affection, and entreaty, were

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substituted and carried to greater length than during the preceding term. The first week was spent in decorating the school-room; in devising various plans of amusement and instruction; and in the preparatory work incident to the period. The instructer endeavoured to conciliate the good will and affections of his pupils by taking their amusements under his superintendence; indicating an interest in them; occasionally uniting in their pastimes; and attempting to make the school room and its exercises pleasing to their young associations—a place where they might delight to assemble. With some complaints on the part of parents, he succeeded beyond expectation.

This term was spent in introducing such modes of communicating instruction, and administering discipline to the mind and feelings, as seemed advisable, and the instructer's information and opportunity suggested. The burden of the instructer's reading and reflection was likewise carried into the details of daily proceeding; and various plans were tested by practical experiment. No call was made for pecuniary assistance, to supply the immediate wants of the school. This was furnished from individual bounty. A juvenile library, consisting of about one hundred volumes, was purchased; and other arrangements made in the interior of the school room. The library was read with much avidity; and was found to subserve important moral and intellectual purposes. Its influence on the daily studies of the school room, in furnishing excitement, by way of reward, was very salutary.

The measures of this term seemed to awaken the popular mind in reference to common school instruction, and to lead to inquiry and discussion. Such as had disapproved, at the commencement, were generally hearty in approving the instructer's measures and sentiments, at its close. Under these circumstances commenced the third term of the school in November, 1826.

Demands were now made upon the district for assistance in several shapes. The instructer required additional salary—alterations in the school room—new class books—together with additions to the school library. Here too much at once may have been attempted: the popular sentiment was not sufficiently liberalized to meet these demands; they were too large a tax upon its bounty.

The salary was granted: part of the required alterations in the school room were provided for: and here the public bounty stopped. The contemplated arrangements were, how-

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ever, made from individual appropriation. The interior of the school room was fitted up according to the desire of the instructer; and class and library books obtained.

These steps gave offence to some. Opposition commenced; some refused to purchase the class books—some took their children from school—a few sent theirs to the academy—others purchased the books, and continued sending, but were evidently dissatisfied. The instructer continued firm in the course upon which he had set out. Measures, intended to insure seasonable and regular attendance, were adopted, and carried into immediate practice. Efficiency and despatch were attempted to be given to the process of instruction. Independent steps were taken. The cry of innovation was common; and for a while the school languished. But the temporary ferment subsided in a short time. Ultimately a large proportion of the district purchased the class books and supported the school.

The school continued. The class books were found upon experiment to be well adapted to the purposes of instruction; and the improvement of pupils was the consequence. The alterations in the school room were found of much convenience; lessening the labours of the instructer, and increasing the comfort and progress of the scholars. And the habits of reading and reflection which the library induced were much approved by the district in general. At the close of the term most were apparently satisfied with measures and their results. The prejudices of a few only continued to oppose. This term closed with the resolution to commence the next under the same superintendence.

This fourth term is now in continuance. The public sentiment in reference to common school education is gradually improving among the members of the district. They begin to appreciate the influence of these schools on society, and to perceive some of the prevalent defects in the principles upon which they have heretofore been conducted. But much is to be done before the common sentiment will be sufficiently liberal to provide an adequate supply for their wants. They need much practical experiment before conviction will effect its work.

The continuance of the school is precarious; depending in a considerable degree upon the unsettled humour of the district. It may not long be continued under present superintendence. The opposing few are still awake to carry on their designs. They may succeed; having recently erected another school, under the instruction of an instructress, whose pupils

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amount to about 15, leaving nearly 30 in attendance at the usual place. Time must determine the result of this proceeding. Should opposition put on an angry aspect the original school will be relinquished. The common sentiment in the village is sufficiently improved to make something valuable to grow out of what has been attempted—come of the school what may.

The improvements which the wants of the school have suggested, and which reading and thought have carried into experiment, are thought to be these :—Connecting pleasing associations with the exercises, and place of study—raising the price of instruction to a fund adequate in some degree to the wants and dignity of the profession—modification of the school room to purposes of convenience and despatch—class books adapted to the wants and habits of pupils—and a school library for daily perusal, embracing a large amount of useful and amusing instruction.

But in making these alterations, the instructer has not been so fortunate as to sustain the confidence and the approbation of all. This was not to be expected. There has been loss : there is still prejudice and opposition ; and there has likewise been gain. And were he so fortunate as to make alterations,—perhaps improvements,—in the common system of instruction, by paying only the tax incident to all similar attempts, he ought to be satisfied. There are always those who think it prudence to oppose every thing new ; and who regard every improvement as innovation upon the stable foundation of antiquity. Such would give the world a retrograde rather than accelerating motion. It is impossible for them to step from the narrow scene of their own operations, and thoughts, and feelings, to contemplate the unbounded expanse of benevolence.

The outline following is the development of the principles upon which the Cheshire Primary School was conducted during the winter term of 1826-7. Its scope, it will be perceived, is limited, and its arrangement crude ; perhaps in some instances fanciful and arbitrary. Others are more competent to judge than the writer. To their consideration it is now submitted, with the request that the subjects for whose instruction it was designed, may after all be allowed to give their voice in the decision. It is adapted professedly to the wants and genius of the young mind ; it refers to children. And it is insisted that children are the best judges of what meets their views and feelings. The experiment has been tried under individual inspection, with

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success. The writer would not choose to forget that little things please little minds; that he once was a child; that then he '*spoke as a child, he understood as a child, he thought as a child*;' and that while employed in directing the youthful thoughts, and understandings, and feelings, it becomes him not, were he able, '*to put away childish things*.'

A. B. ALCOTT, *Instructer*.

Cheshire, May, 1827.

[The details of the plan of instruction will be given in our next.]

SELF IMPROVEMENT FOR ADULTS.

[The following paragraphs are extracted from the preliminary Treatise to the Library of Useful Knowledge, the publication issued by the Society mentioned in our Journal, vol. II. p. 503. We present a slight specimen of this truly useful work, so happily adapted to personal improvement among the mechanic and agricultural classes; and we shall be happy, if, in this way, we can succeed in attracting the attention of the teachers of common schools, in particular, to a source of information so well calculated to enlarge the mind, and prepare it for a more definite and intelligent interest in the improvement of the young. The numbers of this work; as we had occasion formerly to mention, are uncommonly cheap; and as there is an agency established for them on this side the Atlantic, (Messrs G. & C. Carvill of New-York), they can be easily obtained through any bookseller in any part of the country.

It would, however, be an object worthy of the exertions of men of science and wealth, to associate for the diffusion of these publications in towns and villages by instituting libraries from which they might be lent out, or by employing agents to dispose of them by extensive sales. We know of no measure which would contribute so effectually to the great cause of popular improvement.

We would earnestly entreat those of our readers who are in possession of our last volume, to revert to the article of intelligence regarding the above-mentioned society and its publica-

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tions, and to reperuse it with an attentive regard to the good which it seems calculated to effect.]

After the many instances or samples which have now been given of the nature and objects of Natural Science, we might proceed to a different field, and describe in the same way the other grand branch of Human Knowledge, that which teaches the properties or habits of *Mind*—the *intellectual faculties* of man; that is to say, the powers of his understanding, by which he perceives, imagines, remembers, and reasons;—his *moral faculties*, that is to say, the feelings and passions which influence him;—and, lastly, as a conclusion or result drawn from the whole, his *duties* both towards himself as an individual, and towards others, as a member of society; which last head opens to our view the whole doctrines of *political science*, including the nature of governments, of policy, and generally of laws. But we shall abstain at present from entering at all upon this field, and shall now take up the subject, more particularly pointed at through the course of the preceding obesrvations, and to illustrate which they have been framed, namely,—the use and importance of scientific studies.

Man is composed of two parts, body and mind, connected, indeed together, but wholly different from one another. The nature of the union—the part of our outward and visible frame in which it is peculiarly formed—or whether the soul be indeed connected with any particular portion of the body, so as to reside there—are points as yet wholly hid from our knowledge, and which are likely to remain for ever concealed. But this we know, as certainly as we can know any truth, that there is such a thing as the mind; and that we have at the least as good proof of its existence, independent of the body, as we have of the existence of the body itself. Each has its uses, and each has its peculiar gratifications. The bounty of Providence has given us outward senses to be employed, and has furnished the means of gratifying them in various kinds and in ample measure. As long as we only taste those pleasures according to the rules of prudence and of our duty, that is, in moderation for our own sakes, and in harmlessness towards our neighbours, we fulfil rather than thwart the purposes of our being. But the same bountiful Providence has endowed us with the higher nature also—with understandings as well as with senses—with faculties that are of a more exalted nature, and admit of more refined enjoyments, than any the bodily frame can bestow; and by pursu-

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ing such gratifications rather than those of mere sense, we fulfil the highest ends of our creation, and obtain both a present and a future reward. These things are often said, but they are not therefore the less true, or the less worthy of deep attention. Let us mark their practical application to the occupations and enjoyments of all branches of society, beginning with those who form the great bulk of every community, the working classes, by what names soever their vocations may be called—professions, arts, trades, handicrafts, or common labour.

The first object of every man who has to depend upon his own exertions must needs be to provide for his daily wants. This is a high and important office; it deserves his utmost attention; it includes some of his most important duties, both to himself, his kindred, and his country; and although in performing this office he is only influenced by his own interest, or by his necessities, yet it is one which renders him truly the best benefactor of the community to which he belongs. All other pursuits must give way to this; the hours which he gives to learning must be after he has done his work; his independence, without which he is not worthy to be called a man, requires first of all that he should have ensured for himself, and those dependent on him, a comfortable subsistence before he can have a right to taste any indulgence, either of his senses or of his mind; and the more he learns—the greater progress he makes in the sciences—the more will he value that independence, and the more will he prize the industry, the habits of regular labour, whereby he is enabled to secure so prime a blessing.

In one view, it is true, the progress which he makes in science may help his ordinary exertions, the main business of every man's life. There is hardly any trade or occupation in which useful lessons may not be learnt by studying one science or another. The necessity of science to the more liberal professions is self-evident; little less manifest is the use to their members of extending their knowledge beyond the branches of study, with which their several pursuits are more peculiarly conversant. But the other departments of industry derive hardly less benefit from the same source. To how many kinds of workmen must a knowledge of Mechanical Philosophy prove useful! To how many others does Chemistry prove almost necessary! Every one must with a glance perceive that to engineers, watch-makers, instrument-makers, bleachers, and dyers, those sciences are most useful, if not necessary. But carpenters and masons are surely likely to do their work better for knowing how to meas-

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ure, which Practical Mathematics teaches them, and how to estimate the strength of timber, of walls, and of arches, which they learn from Practical Mechanics; and they who work in various metals are certain to be the more skilful in their trades for knowing the nature of those substances, and their relations to both heat and other metals, and to the airs and liquids they come in contact with. Nay, the farm-servant, or day-labourer, whether in his master's employ, or tending the concerns of his own cottage, must derive great practical benefit,—must be both a better servant, and a more thrifty, and therefore comfortable, cottager, for knowing something of the nature of soil and manures, which Chemistry teaches, and something of the habits of animals, and the qualities and growth of plants, which he learns from Natural History and Chemistry together. In truth, though a man be neither mechanic nor peasant, but only one having a pot to boil, he is sure to learn from science lessons which will enable him to cook his morsel better, save his fuel, and both vary his dish and improve it. The art of good and cheap cookery is intimately connected with the principles of chemical philosophy, and has received much, and will yet receive more, improvement from their application. Nor is it enough to say, that philosophers may discover all that is wanted, and may invent practical methods, which it is sufficient for the working man to learn by rote without knowing the principles. He never will work so well if he is ignorant of the principles; and for a plain reason:—if he only learn his lesson by rote, the least change of circumstances puts him out. Be the method ever so general, cases will always arise in which it must be varied in order to apply; and if the workman only knows the rule without knowing the reason, he must be at fault the moment he is required to make any new application of it. This, then, is the *first* use of learning the principles of science: it makes men more skilful, expert, and useful in the particular kinds of work by which they are to earn their bread, and by which they are to make it go far and taste well when earned.

But another use of such knowledge to handicraftsmen and common labourers is equally obvious: it gives every man a chance, according to his natural talents, of becoming an improver of the art he works at, and even a discoverer in the sciences connected with it. He is daily handling the tools and materials with which new experiments are to be made; and daily witnessing the operations of nature, whether in the motions and pressures of bodies, or in their chemical actions on each other.

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All opportunities of making experiments must be unimproved, all appearances must pass unobserved, if he has no knowledge of the principles; but with this knowledge he is more likely than another person to strike out something new which may be useful in art, or curious or interesting in science. Very few great discoveries have been made by chance and by ignorant persons —much fewer than is generally supposed. It is commonly told of the steam engine that an idle boy being employed to stop and open a valve, saw that he could save himself the trouble of attending and watching it, by fixing a plug upon a part of the machine which came to the place at the proper times, in consequence of the general movement. This is possible, no doubt; though nothing very certain is known respecting the origin of the story; but improvements of any value are very seldom indeed so easily found out, and hardly another instance can be named of important discoveries so purely accidental. They are generally made by persons of competent knowledge, and who are in search of them. The improvements of the Steam-engine by Watt resulted from the most learned investigation of mathematical, mechanical, and chemical truths. Arkwright devoted many years, five at the least, to his invention of Spinning jennies, and he was a man perfectly conversant in every thing that relates to the construction of machinery: he had minutely examined it, and knew the effect of each part, though he had not received any thing like a scientific education. If he had, we should in all probability have been indebted to him for scientific discoveries as well as practical improvements. The most beautiful and useful invention of late times, the Safety-lamp, was the reward of a series of philosophical experiments made by one thoroughly skilled in every branch of chemical science. The new process of refining sugar, by which more money has been made in a shorter time, and with less risk and trouble, than was ever perhaps gained from an invention, was discovered by a most accomplished chemist,* and was the fruit of a long course of experiments, in the progress of which, known philosophical principles were constantly applied, and one or two new principles ascertained. But in so far as chance has any thing to do with discovery, surely it is worth the while of those who are constantly working in particular employments to obtain the knowledge required, because their chances are greater than other people's of so applying that knowledge as to hit upon

* Edward Howard, brother of the Duke of Norfolk.

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new and useful ideas: they are always in the way of perceiving what is wanting, or what is amiss in the old methods; and they have a better chance of making the improvements. In a word, to use a common expression, they are in the way of good luck; and if they possess the requisite information, they can take advantage of it when it comes to them. This, then, is the *second* great use of learning the sciences: it enables men to make improvements in the arts, and discoveries in philosophy, which may directly benefit themselves and mankind.

Now, these are the *practical* advantages of learning; but the *third* benefit is, when rightly considered, just as practical as the other two—the pleasure derived from mere knowledge, without any view to our own bodily enjoyments; and this applies to all classes, the idle as well as the industrious, if, indeed, it be not peculiarly applicable to those who have the inestimable blessing of time at their command. Every man is by nature endowed with the power of gaining knowledge, and the taste for it: the capacity to be pleased with it forms equally a part of the natural constitution of his mind. It is his own fault, or the fault of his education, if he derives no gratification from it. There is a satisfaction in knowing what others know—in not being more ignorant than those we live with: there is a satisfaction in knowing what others do not know—in being more informed than they are. But this is quite independent of the pure pleasure of knowledge—of gratifying a curiosity implanted in us by Providence, to lead us towards the better understanding of the universe in which our lot is cast, and the nature wherewithal we are clothed. That every man is capable of being delighted with extending his information upon matters of science will be evident from a few plain considerations.

Reflect how many parts of the reading, even of persons ignorant of all sciences, refer to matters wholly unconnected with any interest or advantage to be derived from the knowledge acquired. Every one is amused with reading a story: a romance may please some, and a fairy tale may entertain others; but no benefit beyond the amusement is derived from this source: the imagination is gratified; and we willingly spend a good deal of time and a little money in this gratification, rather than in rest after fatigue, or in any other bodily indulgence. So we read a newspaper, without any view to the advantage we are to gain from learning the news, but because it interests and amuses us to know what is passing. One object, no doubt, is to become acquainted with matters relating to the welfare of the country;

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but we read the occurrences which do little or not at all regard the public interests, and we take a pleasure in reading them. Accidents, adventures, anecdotes, crimes, and a variety of other things amuse us, independent of the information respecting public affairs, in which we feel interested as citizens of the state, or as members of a particular body. It is of little importance to inquire how and why these things excite our attention, and wherefore the reading about them is a pleasure: the fact is certain; and it proves clearly that there is a positive enjoyment in knowing what we did not know before; and this pleasure is greatly increased when the information is such as excites our surprise, wonder, or admiration. Most persons who take delight in reading tales of ghosts, which they know to be false, and feel all the while to be silly in the extreme, are merely gratified, or rather occupied, with the strong emotions of horror excited by the momentary belief, for it can only last an instant. Such reading is a degrading waste of precious time, and has even a bad effect upon the feelings and the judgment. But true stories of horrid crimes, as murders, and pitiable misfortunes, as shipwrecks, are not much more instructive. It may be better to read these than to sit yawning and idle—much better than to sit drinking or gaming, which, when carried to the least excess, are crimes in themselves, and the fruitful parents of many more. But this is nearly as much as can be said for such vain and unprofitable reading. If it be a pleasure to gratify curiosity, to know what we were ignorant of, to have our feelings of wonder called forth, how pure a delight of this very kind does Natural Science hold out to its students? Recollect some of the extraordinary discoveries of Mechanical Philosophy. How wonderful are the laws that regulate the motions of fluids! Is there any thing in all the idle books of tales and horrors more truly astonishing than the fact, that a few pounds of water may, by mere pressure, without any machinery, by merely being placed in a particular way, produce an irresistible force? What can be more strange, than that an ounce weight should balance hundreds of pounds, by the intervention of a few bars of thin iron? Observe the extraordinary truths which Optical Science discloses. Can any thing surprise us more, than to find that the colour of white is a mixture of all others—that red, and blue, and green, and all the rest, merely by being blended in certain proportions, form what we had fancied rather to be no colour at all, than all colours together? Chemistry is not behind in its wonders. That the diamond should be made of the same mate-

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rial with coal; that water should be chiefly composed of an inflammable substance; that acids should be almost all formed of different kinds of air, and that one of those acids, whose strength can dissolve almost any of the metals, should be made of the self-same ingredients with the common air we breathe; that salts should be of a metallic nature and composed, in a great part, of metals, fluid like quicksilver, but lighter than water, and which, without any heating, take fire upon being exposed to the air, and, by burning, form the substance so abounding in saltpetre and in the ashes of burnt wood: these, surely, are things to excite the wonder of any reflecting mind—nay, of any one but little accustomed to reflect. And yet these are trifling when compared to the prodigies which Astronomy opens to our view: the enormous masses of the heavenly bodies; their immense distances; their countless numbers, and their motions, whose swiftness mocks the uttermost efforts of the imagination.

Akin to this pleasure of contemplating new and extraordinary truths, is the gratification of a more learned curiosity, by tracing resemblances and relations between things, which to common apprehension, seem widely different. Mathematical science to thinking minds affords this pleasure in a high degree. It is agreeable to know that the three angles of every triangle, whatever be its size, howsoever its sides may be inclined to each other, are always of necessity, when taken together, the same in amount: that any regular kind of figure whatever, upon the one side of a right-angled triangle, is equal to the two figures of the same kind upon the two other sides, whatever be the size of the triangle: that the properties of an oval curve are extremely similar to those of a curve, which appears the least like it of any, consisting of two branches of infinite extent, with their backs turned to each other. To trace such unexpected resemblances is, indeed, the object of all philosophy; and experimental science in particular is occupied with such investigations, giving us general views, and enabling us to explain the appearances of nature, that is, to show how one appearance is connected with another. But we are now only considering the gratification derived from learning these things. It is surely a satisfaction, for instance, to know that the same thing, or motion, or whatever it is, which causes the sensation of heat, causes also fluidity, and expands bodies in all directions; that electricity, the light which is seen on the back of a cat when slightly rubbed on a frosty evening, is the very same matter with the lightning of the clouds; —that plants breathe like ourselves, but differently by day and

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by night ;—that the air which burns in our lamps enables a balloon to mount, and causes the globules of the dust of plants to rise, float through the air, and continue their race ;—in a word, is the immediate cause of vegetation. Nothing can at first view appear less like, or less likely to be caused by the same thing, than the processes of burning and of breathing,—the rust of metals and burning,—an acid and rust,—the influence of a plant on the air it grows in by night, and of an animal on the same air at any time, nay, and of a body burning in that air ; and yet all these are the same operation. It is an undeniable fact, that the very same thing which makes the fire burn, makes metals rust, forms acids, and causes plants and animals to breathe ; that these operations, so unlike to common eyes, when examined by the light of science, are the same,—the rusting of metals,—the formation of acids,—the burning of inflammable bodies,—the breathing of animals,—and the growth of plants by night. To know this is a positive gratification. Is it not pleasing to find the same substance in various situations extremely unlike each other ;—to meet with fixed air as the produce of burning,—of breathing,—and of vegetation ; to find that it is the choak-damp of mines—the bad air in the grotto at Naples—the cause of death in neglected brewer's vats,—and of the brisk and acid flavour of Seltzer and other mineral springs ? Nothing can be less like than the working of a vast steam engine, and the crawling of a fly upon the window. We find that these two operations are performed by the same means, the weight of the atmosphere,—and that a sea-horse climbs the ice-hills by no other power. Can any thing be more strange to contemplate ? Is there in all the fairy tales that ever were fancied any thing more calculated to arrest the attention and to occupy and to gratify the mind, than this most unexpected resemblance between things so unlike to the eyes of ordinary beholders ? What more pleasing occupation than to see uncovered and bared before our eyes the very instrument and the process by which nature works ? Then we raise our views to the structure of the heavens ; and are again gratified with tracing accurate but most unexpected resemblances. Is it not in the highest degree interesting to find, that the power which keeps this earth in its shape, and in its path, wheeling round the sun, extends over all the other worlds that compose the universe, and gives to each its proper place and motion ; that this same power keeps the moon in her path round our earth, and our earth in its path round the sun, and each planet in its path ; that the same power causes the tides upon our earth, and the peculiar

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form of the earth itself ; and that, after all, it is the same power which makes a stone fall to the ground ? To learn these things, and to reflect upon them, fills the mind, and produces certain as well as pure gratification.

But if the knowledge of the doctrines unfolded by science is pleasing, so is the being able to trace the steps by which those doctrines are investigated, and their truth demonstrated : indeed you cannot be said, in any sense of the word, to have learnt them, or to know them, if you have not so studied them as to perceive how they are proved. Without this you can never expect to remember them long, or to understand them accurately ; and that would of itself be reason enough for examining closely the grounds they rest on. But there is the highest gratification of all, in being able to see distinctly those grounds, so as to be satisfied that a belief in the doctrines is well founded. Hence to follow a demonstration of a grand mathematical truth—to perceive how clearly and how inevitably one step succeeds another, and how the whole steps lead to the conclusion—to observe how certainly and unerringly the reasoning goes on from things perfectly self-evident, and by the smallest addition at each step, every one being as easily taken after the one before, as the first step of all was, and yet the result being something not only far from self-evident, but so general and strange, that you can hardly believe it to be true, and are only convinced of it by going over the whole reasoning—this operation of the understanding, to those who so exercise themselves, always affords the highest delight. The contemplation of experimental inquiries, and the examination of reasoning founded upon the facts which our experiments and observations disclose, is another fruitful source of enjoyment, and no other means can be devised for either imprinting the results upon our memory, or enabling us really to enjoy the whole pleasures of science. They who found the study of some branches dry and tedious at the first, have generally become more and more interested as they went on ; each difficulty overcome gives an additional relish to the pursuit, and makes us feel as it were, that we have by our work and labour established a right of property in the subject. Let any man pass an evening in listless idleness, or even in reading some silly tale, and compare the state of his mind when he goes to sleep or gets up next morning with its state some other day when he has passed a few hours in going through the proofs, by facts and reasoning, of some of the great doctrines in Natural Science, learning truths wholly new to him, and satisfying himself by careful examination of the

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grounds on which known truths rest, so as to be not only acquainted with the doctrines themselves, but able to show why he believes them, and to prove before others that they are true—he will find as great a difference as can exist in the same being; the difference between looking back upon time unprofitably wasted, and time spent in self improvement: he will feel himself in the one case listless and dissatisfied, in the other comfortable and happy; in the one case, if he do not appear to himself humbled, at least he will not have earned any claim to his own respect; in the other case, he will enjoy a proud consciousness of having, by his own exertions, become a wiser and therefore a more exalted creature.

To pass our time in the study of the sciences, in learning what others have discovered, and in extending the bounds of human knowledge, has, in all ages, been reckoned the most dignified and happy of human occupations; and the name of Philosopher, or Lover of Wisdom, is given to those who lead such a life. But it is by no means necessary that a man should do nothing else than study known truths, and explore new, in order to earn this high title. Some of the greatest philosophers, in all ages, have been engaged in the pursuits of active life; and an assiduous devotion of the bulk of our time to the work which our condition requires, is an important duty, and indicates the possession of practical wisdom. This, however, does by no means hinder us from applying the rest of our time, beside what nature requires for meals and rest, to the study of science; and he who, in whatever station his lot may be cast, works his day's work, and improves his mind in the evening, as well as he who, placed above such necessity, prefers the refined and elevating pleasures of knowledge to the low gratification of the senses, richly deserves the name of True Philosopher.

One of the most gratifying treats which science affords us is the knowledge of the extraordinary powers with which the human mind is endowed. No man, until he has studied philosophy, can have a just idea of the great things for which Providence has fitted his understanding, the extraordinary disproportion which there is between his natural strength and the strength and the powers of his mind, and the force which he derives from these powers. When we survey the marvellous truths of Astronomy, we are first of all lost in the feeling of immense space, and of the comparative insignificance of this globe and its inhabitants. But there soon arises a sense of gratification and of new wonder, at perceiving how so insignificant a creature has

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been able to reach such a knowledge of the unbounded system of the universe—to penetrate, as it were, through all space, and become familiar with the laws of nature at distances so enormous as baffle our imagination—to be able to say, not merely that the Sun has 329,630 times the quantity of matter which our globe has, Jupiter $308\frac{9}{10}$, and Saturn $93\frac{1}{2}$ times; but that a pound of lead weighs at the Sun 22 lbs. 15 ozs, 16 dwts. 8 grs. and $\frac{3}{4}$ of a grain; at Jupiter 2 lbs. 1 oz. 19 dwts. 1 gr. $\frac{29}{41}$ and at Saturn 1 lb. 3 ozs. 8 dwt. 20 grs. $\frac{1}{11}$ part of a grain; and what is far more wonderful, to discover the laws by which the whole of this vast system is held together and maintained through countless ages in perfect security and order. It is surely no mean reward of our labour to become acquainted with the prodigious genius of those who have almost exalted the nature of man above its destined sphere; and, admitted to a fellowship with those loftier minds, to know how it comes to pass that by universal consent they hold a station apart, rising over all the great teachers of mankind, and spoken of reverently, as if Newton and Laplace were not the names of mortal men.

The highest of all our gratifications in the contemplation of science remains: we are raised by them to an understanding of the infinite wisdom and goodness which the Creator has displayed in all his works. Not a step can we take in any direction without perceiving the most extraordinary traces of design; and the skill every where conspicuous is calculated in so vast a proportion of instances to promote the happiness of living creatures, and especially of ourselves, that we can feel no hesitation in concluding, that if we knew the whole scheme of Providence, every part would be in harmony with a plan of absolute benevolence. Independently, however, of this most consoling inference, the delight is inexpressible of being able to follow, as it were, with our eyes, the marvellous works of the great Architect of nature, to trace the unbounded power and exquisite skill which are exhibited in the most minute, as well as the mightiest parts of his system. The pleasure derived from this study is unceasing, and so various, that it never tires the appetite. But it is unlike the low gratifications of sense in another respect: it elevates and refines our nature, while those hurt the health, debase the understanding, and corrupt the feelings; it teaches us to look upon all earthly objects as insignificant, and below our notice, except the pursuit of knowledge and the cultivation of virtue—that is to say, the strict performance of our duty in every relation of society; and it gives a dignity and importance to the enjoyment

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of life, which the frivolous and the grovelling cannot even comprehend.

Let us, then, conclude, that the pleasures of science go hand in hand with the solid benefits derived from it; that they tend, unlike other gratifications, not only to make our lives more agreeable, but better; and that a rational being is bound by every motive of interest and of duty, to direct his mind towards pursuits which are found to be the sure path of virtue as well as of happiness.

INQUIRIES ON EDUCATION.—NO. I.

[The object of the following inquiries is of sufficient consequence, we trust, to lead to the farther prosecution of it, both on the part of our contributor himself, and of any of our readers to whom the subject may appear in a different light from that in which it is now presented.]

One of the leading causes of the inefficiency of early education, and from which a formidable evil arises, has its foundation, not more in the course of instruction and improper application, than in the custom of society, whose authority prescribes and sanctions that course.

How is education in general estimated?—by its usefulness when called into the active duties of life; or is it judged by a specific value, which a limited period of study and the number of branches pursued, have established? Is it estimated by its fitness to qualify the individual for that station which he is destined to occupy, by disciplining the mind to a familiarity with the important principles, which practice in after life will bring to maturity; or is it measured by the extent of its wanderings, and the number of observations it has taken? Is it estimated by its power to supply individual wants in active life; or is it courted to satisfy the demand of public opinion?—by its adaptation to circumstance and situation in forming individual character—in making life subservient to education, or education to life?

Here we meet the first difficulty which presents itself in a consideration of this nature; that education is too often in-

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applicable, and fails to answer the end for which it was intended; that life is made subservient to education, and not education to life; that it is shaped to answer a specific demand made by public estimation, and that its acquirements are valuable to their possessor only as they have obtained a currency, which must be borne about as testimony of knowledge.

It is a fact which cannot be denied, that much of youth is spent in acquiring useless knowledge, which cannot, from its very nature, be brought into the practical duties of life; especially by those whose education is limited to preparation for most situations in society, where they are compelled to bring their small stock of information to the aid of practice.

The fundamental principles of common education are few and simple, and easily acquired during the first years of pupilage, when the mind is prepared to pursue any course its studies may direct. This course is now determined by the old landmarks of public opinion—confined to the same deep furrowed path of other generations, and its merits decided by the rapidity of its movements, or extent of its acquisitions, in comparison with its predecessors or contemporaries. This is the standard by which it is judged, and little regard is had to its fitness to discharge those duties upon which an individual is destined to enter. During the period usually spent at school, the same, or nearly the same preparatory education is given to the intended merchant, the mechanic, and all classes of society, as for the learned professions—the same course pursued by all, whose destinations lie in opposite directions. This evil exists, as we have said, in public opinion, which has so long constituted a particular course of education, a criterion by which to measure individual acquirements, that an appeal from its decision has been thought sacrilege; and whether answering the great end of education or not, it has become the currency by which to determine the importance of the possessor. Public opinion is powerful we know, especially when uncontrolled; and no wonder that upon this, as upon most other subjects, its mandates should be obeyed, and its influence irresistible. If public opinion has sanctioned a course of education as preparatory to the active stations of life, and upon certain qualifications is made to depend individual success, then no doubt remains of the course to be pursued, to secure public approbation; but if such qualifications shall extend no farther than a nominal superiority, and be found inapplicable to the real duties of life, and not subservient to individual interest in point of merit, such a course should be abandoned.

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The prevailing characteristic of education, at the present time, is a broad systematic outline in the old beaten track, embracing far more theory than practice, and much better calculated to command respect by its harmony and arrangement, than by its intrinsic value. Public opinion may become an idol, to which respect must be paid unworthily; particularly in education, when it becomes the criterion to test individual merit, and prescribes the only course of instruction, when such course is found to be sadly deficient. It exercises a double influence, inasmuch as it compels teachers to observe its ancient landmarks, and enforces this demand by those who have no other means of forming a correct judgment.

Society is composed of numerous and distinct professions, each calling into action the exercise of different abilities, whose fitness or unfitness must be determined by their preparatory education; at least its influence extends through life, and is the great agent in forming habits of mind and character. It is true, that some portion of the education of every one must be the same, and whatever be their future destination, their chart and compass must be alike; but there is no propriety in providing a vessel of the same dimensions to coast along the shore of practical life, or supplying it with the same outfit as one destined to traverse the scientific world on a voyage of discovery, whose success depends upon a favourable coincidence of human ingenuity with the laws of nature. If we always keep in view the end for which we toil, we shall be essentially aided in our progress; and if nothing be brought to aid the enterprise, but what can be made subservient to its accomplishment, the advancement will be gradual and sure. We fear that this is too often lost sight of, as well as that good maxim, 'teach boys what you wish them to practise in after life—what will make them useful as well as ornamental members of society.' This will not parcel the community out into separate orders, or create a barrier of distinction in society; but will have an influence to raise the standard of all, by rendering them better qualified to discharge the several duties of each particular profession.

Of what advantage can a course of education be to any one, whose situation is not calculated to call it into practice? We are opposed to the idea of boys finishing their education, when they shall have completed the term of their pupilage, and leave school to enter upon an apprenticeship to their profession; it should be only a link in a progressive education, and not entirely different from that which was intended as a preparation.

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To those whose education is thus limited, this period is the most important part of life, and merits the attention of those whose influence governs society, and in whose welfare they have an interest.

We believe this time to be, in many instances, unprofitably employed, inasmuch as the branches of knowledge pursued are inapplicable to the pursuits of after life, and thus the important object, of making education subservient to life, is defeated, and its influence to form the character, is counteracted. Nothing in education is valuable, unless it is applicable in the discharge of our several duties, and made subservient to the great and important purposes of our existence. In the present state of society, no more time is given us for our education, than sufficient to acquaint us with what we are afterwards to pursue; and both should be made to correspond in such a manner, that it would be only the awakening of those powers whose growth shall continue through life.

It is a great error, and one from which a formidable evil arises, that education should be completed before apprenticeship commences, thereby limiting its operations to a period when it should be cultivated with the most success. It should be considered the work of life, and be of such a nature, that its improvement shall extend and exert an influence in unison with the subsequent pursuit. School is a place to form habits of mental exercise, to cultivate and improve the disposition, to impress the mind with moral principles, and introduce it into that path which it is destined to travel. In whatever sphere the mind is to act, care should be taken to make its education as practical as possible. Its growth depends upon its exercise, and its strength must be estimated by its power to administer to its own necessities.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Physical Education:—The sense of Sight.

[The interesting paragraphs which follow are extracted from Newnham's Principles of Education—reviewed at page 611 of our second volume. The subject of this article is highly impor-

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tant, not only from the extreme delicacy and susceptibility of the organ referred to, but from the too common tendency to neglect its wants and its dangers, till fatal injury has been entailed upon it.

At our day, especially, when even very young children are compelled to a premature exhaustion of the eye by too much reading, a word of caution seems peculiarly applicable.]

The sense of sight informs us of the positive and relative distance of bodies from ourselves, and from each other; of their size, figure, mobility, &c.: all within a certain and defined distance called the sphere of vision; this however varying very greatly in different individuals, of whom the extremes will commonly be found in the peasant, and the man of letters; the one being accustomed always to look at distant bodies on a large scale; the other almost exclusively riveted to his desk, and his eye fixed on minuter objects.

The perfection of vision is, that it should be clear, distinct, quick, at all distances, and that it should be long preserved; readily embracing a whole without losing sight of the details of which it is composed or of the relation established between the several objects which these details comprise.

To the accomplishment of this perfection, it is necessary that the eye should be a good one, considered as an optical instrument; that the general health should be unimpaired, since upon this depends the exertion of muscular power, and the consequent easy adaptation of the organ to different distances; that the intellectual powers should be in full operation, that the eye should be accustomed to execute frequently, and under varying circumstances, the function of comparison between what it sees, and what it knows; that it should be assisted by the other senses, and more particularly by that of touch; and that it should be strengthened by exercise.

The perfection to which vision may be carried, is readily exemplified by the effect of different pursuits upon it; by the accuracy of anatomical expression in the portrait painter, or the sculptor, or by the delicacy of colouring, the judicious management of light and shade, and by the grouping of the several objects which constitute the *forte* of the landscape painter: and which place us at once in the society of those long lost, or, in scenes over which memory fondly wakes, and which kindle with emotion, a thousand interesting reminiscenses. In a different way, the same sense is highly developed in the professional ar-

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chitect, to whom we are indebted for some of the finest models of human art and industry. And to mention only one other instance of the influenc of this law, and to descend to a much humbler example, the same principle is discoverable in the quiet and accurate eye of the sportsman, who brings down his bird in rapid flight, and sometimes with unerring certainty.

These examples, by shewing the power of education, habit, and exercise, on the perfection of this sense, are encouraging to persist in the effort after improvement. But all have not the same power of attaining excellence; since, in the first place the focal distance of the eye differs in different individuals. It is of great importance, that parents should ascertain this circumstance, or they may be often, though unwittingly, guilty of injustice to their children; in ascribing that to awkwardness of manner or perverseness of disposition, which is in truth, only the expression of a natural defect in the organ of vision; to be counteracted, not by correction and moral discipline, but by gradually developing that power of accommodation to circumstance which the eye possesses. The common focal distance of the human eye, or that in which individuals generally see to read distinctly, and at the same time conveniently, is from eight to nine inches; but it will be more or less, according to circumstances; adopting this distance, as the one in which a book should *always* be held, will produce in many cases, indistinct vision, and lead to perpetual error, which may be ascribed to carelessness, or which may be productive of inordinate exercise, fatigue and exhaustion to the eye; and thus early lay the foundation of disease, or of premature old age. This organ, then, should be gradually accustomed to change, and much may be done by perseverance. It must however be recollected, that, under these circumstances, the eye is more liable to fatigue, and requires, therefore, longer intervals of rest. Where the irritability consequent upon exhaustion has been induced, great advantage has been derived from the application of cold water, which may with propriety be allowed to evaporate.

It has been stated, as one of the characteristics of good vision, that it should be long preserved. This, however, requires considerable care, and an attention to some important precautions.

First, reading, which generally occupies the eye most intently, and therefore produces the earliest symptoms of fatigue, should not be continued too long in one unbroken period, but should be subdivided into the occupation of different parts of the day,

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and alternated with some other pursuit. A change of exercise is, in itself, repose; and, with a little care, this may be always effected without any material loss of time; while by this process, the organ will be more strengthened, than by a complete alternation from active exertion to absolute quiescence.

Reading, during the twilight, should be strictly prohibited. There is no practice which tends more certainly to develope morbid predisposition than this unfortunate habit: for the eye is strained beyond measure to continue its pursuit, and is thus rendered weak and irritable. Sudden transitions should always be avoided; for although the eye has the power of excluding the greater number of rays, by the contraction of the iris almost to a point, and again, of receiving a larger proportion by its dilatation; yet this cannot be effected rapidly or frequently, without a degree of suffering which is injurious. Every individual may convince himself of the truth of this assertion, by the effect produced upon the visual organ, by the sudden introduction of candles, after sitting in the dark, or at least in a very weak light; an experiment which should always be avoided in practice: for as soon as the light ceases to be sufficient for the common purposes of employment, at that instant should candles be introduced. A similar effect should be guarded against in the change from the labours of the study, which it has been recommended to furnish with Venetian blinds, and to defend from a very strong light, to the amusements of the play-ground, and exposure to insolation. The transition should be gradual, and light should be admitted into the room for a few minutes before the little pupils leave it for their out-door exercises. It is desirable to avoid much reading by candle light, for a similar reason as that on which the eye should be defended from the full blaze of the meridian sun. But, above all, the attempt to read by moonlight should be most uncompromisingly forbidden: since its insufficient, but dazzling brightness, is peculiarly injurious to this delicate organ.

The very lucid, resplendent, and brilliant eye, especially where this is accompanied with a dark coloured iris, is commonly one of excessive *sensibility*; always bordering upon, and without great care, easily converted into *irritability*, and that impatience of light which prevents distinctness of vision, and gives rise to blinking of the eye-lids and other awkward habits, which are in reality the expression of its suffering, and of nature's mode of attempting its relief by excluding the too powerful light, where the exquisite sympathy established between the

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retina and the iris, has proved insufficient to save the organ from distress. The voice of unsophisticated nature should ever be attended to; and it becomes the parent to expound its slightest intimations, and to act upon them. It is in these cases, that attention to the colour of the dress and of surrounding objects, may be useful. But in every instance it behovés the parent to distinguish between the bad habit, and organic changes which admit of remedy. Imperfections should be discovered, and the eye accustomed by slowly augmented exercise, to all the little circumstances of life, which though they may be hurtful, are yet unavoidable; while it should also be employed by degrees, in discovering all that nature has revealed, or the industry and genius of man have unfolded.

The modifications of exercise for this sense are almost as numerous as the daily occasions of life. One of the most important, consists in teaching it to carry on its vision to sentences, or parts of sentences posterior to the one, which at the instant engages the eye and the organs of language, so as to rivet the power of the understanding upon what the child reads. While the words of a sentence may be pronounced without thought, ideas will not be communicated by reading; but they cannot fail to be so, where the intellectual faculty is in active exercise, and in unison with that exquisite mechanism, by which nature has allowed the admission of words as the signs of ideas; and has likewise provided for their enunciation. Without having acquired this habit, no one can read well; for none can give to language its proper emphasis, who has not previously embraced the design of the author, and comprehended his sentiments and mode of argumentation; and none can do this, unless he can carry on the eye to subsequent parts of the page before him. No pains will be ill bestowed, in obtaining this acquisition, which is invaluable to the pupil; inasmuch as it converts him from the parrot to the rational being; teaches him to arrange his ideas, and to communicate them, as well as the ideas of others, to those with whom he stands associated.

It is highly desirable to instruct the eye in the advantage of symmetry and order, in the arrangement of all the child's playthings, and of all natural objects. It will be seen, upon investigation, that much more depends upon this principle than immediately appears. For, in the first place, the faculty of attention is developed by it; and the memory is strengthened, not so much as a consequence of this activity of attention, as from *the habit of arrangement*. The author is by no means an advocate for the

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adoption of any system of technical memory : on the contrary, he believes that all such systems are based upon a fallacy, and are too mechanical to be really useful : but every one who attends to the operations of his own mind, will have often found, that he has been assisted in restoring ideas and their signs, by recollecting the page of the book, or the situation of the page in which they were written ; or by recalling the *order* in which the attention of the thinking faculty was directed towards them. All are sensible of the advantages of arrangement in facilitating the acquisition of knowledge ; and of the fact, that ideas thus systematically connected will be afterwards elaborated with regularity ; that the individual possessing such, will think and reason correctly, and will avoid that confusion of intellect which so frequently leads to erroneous opinion, imperfect or distorted judgment, and mischievous action. The same advantage of order in assisting the recollection, is felt in the demonstration of an abstruse problem of Euclid, or in the appropriation of any closely reasoned argument—leading, as it should always lead, to one point.

This, however, by no means comprehends all the advantages which accrue from the eye being accustomed to order. Habits of neatness and cleanliness are depending upon it : every thing must be in its proper place ; the *keeping* of the character must be complete ; the eye discerns, and the understanding is discomforted by want of arrangement and disorder : the smallest deviation from the neatness so essential to the gentleman, is discovered and remedied ; and thus intercourse with society is rendered much more pleasing. And still further, the same principle is applicable to orthography. When the recollection momentarily fails, and we forget whether we have spelt a word correctly or not, the eye, accustomed to order, immediately informs us whether it *looks aright*. A variety of other illustrations might be added ; all tending to shew that the perfection, as well as the *agrémens* of the character, and the faculty of obtaining and communicating knowledge, depend greatly upon rigid attention to this principle.

The eye should also be accustomed to discern distinctly at different distances, both near and remote, in order that it may obtain the greatest possible number of exterior notices ; notices too, which it will be seen are not merely valuable as the gratifications of sense ; but as leading to results of great importance, a few of which may be thus briefly stated.

1. Distinct vision enlarges our acquaintance with natural

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objects. The phenomena of nature's productions, present an almost endless source of admiration, and of constant pursuit, (the great secret of happiness in this lower world, for without it every blessing is insipid, or at least but half enjoyed,) and the earlier the attention is fixed upon them, and the interest and curiosity of the young concerning them is excited, the better. All knowledge is useful for itself, and its application in the daily purposes of life: but here particularly the operation of a master hand is to be traced, and the young will be most readily led to inquire *who* made all these wonders; and may by degrees be informed of the bounty and love of that Omnipotent Architect, who created and upholds all things; and thus may be conducted to the knowledge; that man is the most astonishing product of his Almighty hand; and to all the duties arising out of his relation to *Him*, from whom are derived life and breath, and all things. This, of course, implies an acquaintance with the general laws of nature's economy, which must only be gradually unfolded; and the first link in the chain of which, must be, to fix the attention to natural objects, and to recognise them in little paintings, drawings, or engravings. For this purpose, the art of drawing may be exceedingly useful, while at the same, it will give a great degree of accuracy to the minute observations of the visual organ.

REVIEWS.

An Address on Female Education, delivered in Portsmouth, New-Hampshire, October 26, 1827. *By* Charles Burroughs, *Rector of St. John's Church.* Portsmouth. Childs & March. 8vo. pp. 44.

The subject of this pamphlet is so interesting and so important, that no apology will be necessary for the copiousness of the extracts, with which we have enriched the pages of our Journal, unless one may be due to the author for the freedom we have been obliged to use, in abridging many of his arguments and omiting some of his most valuable suggestions. After a brief review of the civil and intellectual history of woman,—and a mournful picture of the degradation it presents,—the author urges the importance of imparting to her a liberal course of instruc-

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tion, by various arguments, which, although they may not be original, cannot be too often presented to the minds of those who hold her destiny in their hands.

'The brief view that has been given of the history of woman exhibits most painful proof how little has yet been done for her mental improvement, and how excessive have been her sufferings from such neglect. This shows that her education is a subject of infinite importance not only to herself, but to the general good of society. We allude not here to ornamental or superficial acquirements. We speak of that high system of instruction, which calls into vigorous exercise all the faculties of the soul, strengthens it by culture, stores it with knowledge, plants every virtue in the heart, and exalts the character by intellectual and moral excellence. This should be the lofty aim of female education. Its immense consequence will be readily admitted, if we view it in connexion with personal and domestic happiness, the moral condition of the community, and the interests of manners and literature.

'An extensive and liberal system of instruction is of vast advantage to a female, as connected with her personal happiness. If her knowledge be only superficial, from what source is she to derive her enjoyments or a proper acquaintance with her great and numerous duties? How limited will be her sphere of usefulness, and how scanty her resources for the employment of her leisure hours! How will she relieve home of a wearisome monotony, render herself interesting to those around her, or prevent her mind from preying on itself, and becoming the victim of ennui? What is to keep her from the snares of vice, from a round of unprofitable visiting, from an incessant desire of theatres and balls and other exciting amusements, from

A youth of folly, an old age of cards,

and from a miserable, reproachful, and unchristian life? Enrich her mind with sound and valuable knowledge, inspire her heart with virtue, and you will ensure to her the highest and purest satisfaction. Impart to her an acquaintance with the wonderful powers and properties of her understanding, and with the delights that flow from intellectual indulgences, you will then enable her to hold interesting discourse with reason, to mould her principles, to regulate her associations, and subdue her prejudices. Lead her to the elevated walks of moral philosophy, and you will induce her to rise above the grossness of sense, to seek the exalting raptures that flow from wisdom and virtue; you will enable her better to understand and perform her duties, and incite her to investigate more diligently, and observe more reverently, the sublime doctrines and precepts of revealed truth. Such a course will

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produce in her inexpressible complacency of mind, will destroy the possibility of weariness at home, and correct all inordinate passion for diversions. She will find a boundless field of joy opened to her from contemplating the phenomena of the natural world, and from observing ever new and varying beauties in creation.

'Female education is of immense importance, as connected with domestic life. It is at home, where man generally passes the largest portion of his time; where he seeks a refuge from the vexations and embarrassments of business, an enchanting repose from exertion, a relaxation from care by the interchange of affection; where some of his finest sympathies, tastes, and moral and religious feelings are formed and nourished;—where is the treasury of pure disinterested love, such as is seldom found in the busy walks of a selfish and calculating world. Nothing can be more desirable, than to make one's domestic abode the highest object of his attachment and satisfaction.

'Now on woman devolves almost the whole superintendence of a family. On her chiefly depend its economy, order, and moral beauty and harmony. Knowledge alone will effect these benefits, and the whole character of home will be graduated according to the degree of that knowledge. The welfare of a family, as connected with its pecuniary concerns, is owing very materially to female management. It is education, which is to produce right views and feelings respecting the proper course of living, and the correct adjustment of expenses in the various departments of domestic life. It was the remark of Dr. Johnson, that a woman cannot have too much arithmetic; and Hannah More has told us, "That a sound economy is a sound understanding, brought into action; it is calculation realized; it is the doctrine of proportion, reduced to practice; it is foreseeing consequences, and guarding against them; it is expecting contingencies, and being prepared for them." Besides, a female wants knowledge and judgment for aiding and advising those of her household. Where is the counsellor, in whom man is so much inclined to place confidence, as in the partner of his cares and joys? By the possession of intellectual attainments, she may guide her husband in safety amidst numerous dangers, and may interpose by the combined influences of an enlightened mind and tender affection, to break the force of every calamity that could not be foreseen or prevented. It can never reasonably be apprehended that, by enlarging a woman's faculties, and improving her taste and feelings, she will think herself above the common duties of domestic life. Notwithstanding recent progress of female education, we see no diminution of the the household virtues. They were perhaps never better observed, than at the present day; and she, who from pretence of superior

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wisdom disdains a condescension to "house affairs," will generally be found not much distinguished for intelligence or common sense.

'Female education is extremely valuable from its imparting an elevated and improved character to domestic discourse. Conversation is one of the greatest joys of existence; and the more perfect it is made by the resources of learning, enlarged views of morality, the refinement of taste, the riches of language, and the splendours of imagery, the more exquisite is the joy. It is from education that discourse collects all its ornamental drapery, "its clothing of wrought gold," its thrilling eloquence, its sweetest music, and all its magical influence over the soul.

'Female education is inseparably connected with the moral condition of society. It is essential to the common good that knowledge should be universally diffused. Every uneducated person is an anomaly in the scheme of human happiness, is constantly retarding its advancement, and is at variance with one of the most benevolent designs and provisions of heaven. 'Go, *teach* all nations," was the mandate of mercy to the first missionaries of the gospel; and we are assured that, from such a mandate, God designs the unlimited diffusion of knowledge. It was the entirely original as well as the infinitely gracious purpose of our Saviour, to provide intellectual as well as religious and moral light for every one that cometh into the world. Every well instructed mind is a diminution of the mass of human misery, and an addition to that of human happiness.'

'The importance of female education, as connected with the general happiness of the community, will be readily admitted, if we advert to that powerful moral influence, which women hold over their children at the periods of infancy and childhood, and which is continued with their female children almost to the age of maturity. The mental and moral impressions, that a child receives during the first years of life, are chiefly derived from the mother; and these are generally conceded to form the very elements of character, and to generate those moral tendencies, which colour the whole of existence. Seldom are early impressions effaced. Most of the distinguished men on record received the seeds of their greatness from maternal culture. It was under the care, and, as it were, in the bosom of his mother, says Tacitus, that the tender mind of Agricola was trained to science and every liberal accomplishment. Lord Bacon made grateful acknowledgments to his mother for his love of philosophy and great renown. We learn, too, that maternal ability, vigilance and decision chiselled the bold outlines of glory in the life of the political saviour of our country. Who among us can deny his obligations for maternal care in imparting holy influences? Who feels not over his soul

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the recollections of a mother's early fondness, and finds not his character moulded by her constant and faithful assiduities? Who can be sufficiently grateful, when that fondness and those assiduties have been enlightened by wisdom and hallowed by piety? Now if a mother have no education, or, what is as bad, one that was merely superficial and showy; if she lack understanding, and has never attended to the culture of her heart, her children will inherit the deficiencies of her character, and will prove either incumbrances or positive evils to the community. Whereas a well informed and religious woman will inspire in her children generous sentiments and feelings. From her intellectual and moral exertion, from a resistless proneness to imitation, and from the moral contagion of maternal rectitude and dignity, her children will be abundantly blessed with all the best materials for the formation of character. It is by providing High Schools of instruction for females, that you are to make *them* the best and most successful teachers in the land, to render them ministering angels to countless beings, and to multiply the joys of learning and virtue. Here then are we taught that the advancement of female education is one of the most efficacious means for promoting the public good. This will clothe society with new beauty and new blessings. On the exertions of the intelligent and pious of the present age rests the immense responsibleness of the future character of our country. It has become the imperious duty of every people, of every government, to make abundant provision for female education.

'The moral power of woman extends not merely over children, but affects immediately and directly the tastes, habits and pursuits of all her friends and companions. Her character is felt throughout the intricate machinery of society, and gives complexion to the age. As her condition is elevated or depressed, as she is learned or unlearned, licentious or pure, so rises or falls the character of the institutions, of the morals and of the manners of the community. Strengthen her mind, adorn it with intellectual furniture, give to her voice the music of enlightened and eloquent discourse, clothe her manners with dignity, grace her soul with the enchanting robes of faith and piety; and then man will approach her with profound respect; he will not enter her abode, till he can be assimilated to her attributes; he will elevate his mind to her principles, give purity and elegance to his manners and language, that he may be a welcome visitant at her home, and taste there the refined joys of knowledge and piety. Let her mind be weak, her conversation trifling, her love of flattery strong, her sensibility affected, and her manners artificial, then will her society be sought only by the foolish and vain, and she will be admired only for personal beauty; she will lower the tone of dis-

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course and of thought; she will encourage frivolity and folly in man, and weaken the strong holds of wisdom and virtue. Knowledge alone can stop such evils. It is on the ground of female education, where the moral lever must be placed, to move the world to a more elevated orbit of intellectual and moral glory.'

The author of the address next indicates very many defects in the prevailing systems of female education. Perhaps we ought to use some other word than *systems*; for, it is believed, that there is no such thing as a general system of moral, physical, and intellectual culture for females, known amongst us. Intelligent and ingenious teachers have, indeed, their peculiar methods, and often very excellent ones; but their individual influence is but little felt without the sphere of their own immediate exertions: it does not pervade the general mass of the community.

The latter part of the discourse contains some valuable suggestions as to the general principles which should regulate the adoption of a more extensive and useful system of female education, which we must omit for the present. Our last extract will be the eloquent appeal for woman, with which the address is closed.

'Let me now close this address, my friends, by urging on your attention and liberality the claims of female education. These claims, you perceive, are of the highest possible character, connected with all that is lovely and beautiful in the condition of man,—with the personal happiness of every individual, with all the comforts of home, with the best interests of the community, and even with the growth and prosperity of our country. They are connected with the condition of the countless multitude of unborn millions, that are yet to be wafted upon the current of time to eternity. They are connected with our own momentous destiny at the last dread tribunal of Jehovah. Learning pleads for woman to bring her energies and her charms to its exalted cause. Religion pleads for woman, that she may be guided by its cheering light, and adorned with its precious ornaments; that she may be admitted to the temple of its sublime doctrines and holy truths, to its chambers, decked with curious and glorious workmanship by the hand of God. Science pleads for woman, to open before her susceptible mind the mysterious and splendid exhibitions of omniscience and infinite benevolence in the works of nature. Wisdom speaks, as from the throne of God, and pleads with woman to take fast hold of instruction, saying, "let her not go; keep her, for she is the end of thy life." Patriotism pleads for woman, that she may dwell for ever in the land of liberty and

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virtue; that she may lend her influence to advance our national prosperity; and that, illumined by the purest principles and warmed by a holy zeal, she may inculcate such lessons, as shall render her descendants the invincible defenders of freedom and the true faith. Where can genius so sublimely exert herself, where can eloquence be so righteously employed, where can governments so wisely legislate, where can wealth be so profitably expended, as in aiding the cause of female education;—a cause which, though accomplishing wonders in improving the condition of the world, is yet far behind the spirit of the age, and the demands of society? Let us now hope, that its claims will be regarded; and that woman may soon realize all the blessings that learning, refinement, genius, eloquence, the efforts of man and the power of the Gospel can possibly confer upon her; "that our daughters may be as corner stones, polished after the similitude of a palace."'

Le Narrateur Français; or, a Selection of Anecdotes, Repartees, and Characters, in the French Tongue, printed with two new Orthoepic Signs, in order to facilitate the attainment of a correct and elegant Pronunciation; to which are annexed, Preliminary Grammatical Principles, an Interpretative Index, and a Free Translation of the first Anecdotes,—by which means, the Text can be critically understood without any other assistance: The whole being executed on an original plan, and adapted to the use of Adults. By A. Roy, *late Teacher in the French University; Author and Translator of several Works; and Professor of the French Language to the City of London Literary and Scientific Institution.* London, W. Pickering. 1827. 12mo. pp. 123, 138, and 74.

This volume was introduced to our readers in the first article of the closing number of vol. II. A large portion of the prefatory remarks we transferred to our pages, thinking that they offered much practical assistance to instruction; that they pointed out very judiciously some of the more striking imperfections of Hamilton's system, and afforded, at the same time, the best means of obviating them, without losing any of the benefits of that simple and rational method of teaching.

We return, at present, to this work, for the purpose of making our readers more thoroughly acquainted with its merits, as a book well adapted to teachers and pupils who have already made some progress, through the aid of literal translation, or who

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are inclined to distrust that method, and wish for a more systematic guidance, and are disposed to encounter the labour of a more grammatical initiation. The Narrateur affords a very happy combination of the benefits resulting from the practical and expeditious method of Hamilton, guarded against the dangers of mechanical and superficial instruction; along with the thorough-going discipline of systematic grammar, divested of its tedious formality and technical difficulty.

The peculiar merits of the work will be best understood by reference to specimens from the different parts of it.

The following comprehensive exhibition of conjugation, is from the 'preliminary grammatical principles necessary for the full understanding of the text.'

'Having explained all the divisions of the verb, it now remains to give its various terminations, and to point out their real or fictitious analogies, otherwise called their *formations*, by which only the student can easily comprehend and permanently retain the whole system in his mind. With this object in view, the most important parts of a verb may be said to be,—First, the Infinitive and Active participle;—Secondly, the Passive participle;—Thirdly, the Preterit of the indicative;—Fourthly, the Future of the indicative;—Fifthly, the Present of the indicative;—all of which being more or less independent, are more or less efficient in the formation of the other parts.

TERMINATIONS.		EXAMPLES.
INFINITIVE.		
er		march-er, pri-er, jou-er, tu-er, agré-er, pay-er, tiss-er
ir (*not* oir)		bât-ir, sent-ir, cueill-ir, acquér-ir, ha-ïr, fu-ir, jou-ir, bleu-ir, ven-ir, ten-ir, ouvr-ir, mou-rir, vêt-ir
re	preceded by one or two vowels	li-re, di-re, ri-re, écri-re, conclu-re, clo-re, fai-re, lui-re, condui-re, boi-re
	by two or three consonants	connaît-re, êt-re viv-re, suiv-re, coud-re, moud-re, résoud-re, rend-re, prend-re, perd-re, romp-re, batt-re, mett-re, craind-re, vainc-re
oir		v-oir, prév-oir, pourv-oir, dev-oir, voul-oir, pouv-oir, val-oir, asse-oir
PARTICIPLES.		
Active.		
ant		march-ant, pri-ant, bâtiss-ant, sent-ant, lis-ant, ri-ant, buv-ant, connaiss-ant, cous-ant, moul-ant, résolv-ant, rend-ant, pren-ant, perd-ant, craign-ant, vainqu-ant, voy-ant, dev-ant, voul-ant, pouv-ant

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Passive.

é	march-é, pri-é, jou-é, agré-é, ét-é, n-é
i	bât-i, sent-i, ha-ï, jou-i, lu-i, r-i, suiv-i
u	tiss-u, ven-u, l-u, concl-u, b-u, conn-u, résol-u, v-u, d-û
s	acqui-s, clo-s, pri-s, mi-s, résou-s, épri-s, assi-s
t	ouver-t, mor-t, di-t, fai-t, condui-t, écri-t cuira-t

INDICATIVE.

Present.

	1st p.	2d p.	3d p.	
sing.	e,	es,	e	march-e, agré-e, pai-e, cueill-e, ouvr-e
	s,	s,	t	bâti-s, sen-s vien-s, meur-s, li-s, connai-s, vi-s, résou-s, romp-s, crain-s, voi-s, doi-s
	ds,	ds,	d	cou-ds, ren-ds, per-ds, mou-ds
	ts,	ts,	t	vê-ts, ba-ts, me-ts
	cs,	cs,	c	vain-cs, convain-cs
	x,	x,	t	veu-x, peu-x, vau-x
plur.	ons,	ez,	ent	march-ons, bâtis-ons, lis-ons, moul-ons, craign-ons, val-ons

*Imperfect.**

ais,	ais,	ait	march-ais, bâtiss-ais, sent-ais, connaiss-ais, résolv-ais, rend-ais, pren-ais, vainqu-ais, voy-ais, pouv-ais
ions,	iez,	aient,	

Preterit.

ai,	as,	a	march-ai, pri-ai, agré-ai, pay-ai
âmes,	âtes,	èrent	
is,	is,	it	bât-is, ha-ïs, d-is, écriv-is, f-is, conduis-is, suiv-is, rend-is, craign-is, v-is, ass-is
îmes,	îtes,	irent	
ins,	ins,	int	v-ins, t-ins, conv-ins, entret-ins, parv-ins, cont-ins, appart-ins
inmes,	intes,	inrent	
us,	us,	ut	mour-us, concl-us, b-us, conn-us, véc-us, f-us, résol-us, pourv-us, d-us, p-us
ûmes,	ûtes,	urent	

Future.

r-ai,	r-as,	r-a	marche-rai, joue-rai, paie-rai, bâti-rai, acquer-rai, viend-rai, boi-rai, fe-rai, vivrai, vainc-rai, prévoi-rai, ver-rai, devrai, voud-rai, pour-rai, vaud-rai
r-ons,	r-ez,	ront	

* Spelt also *ois, ois, oit; ions, iez, oient.*

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*Conditional.**

r-ais,	r-ais,	r-ait	marche-rais, joue-rais, paie-rais, bâti-rais, acquer-rais, viend-rais, boi-rais, fe-rais, viv-rais, vainc-rais, prévoi-rais, ver-rais, dev-rais, voud-rais, pour-rais, vaud-rais,
r-ions,	r-iez,	r-aient	

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

e,	es,	e	march-e, pri-e, bâtiss-e, connaiss-e, moul-e, résolv-e, préval-e, craign-e, vainqu-e
ions,	iez,	ent,	

Preterit.

asse,	asses,	ât	march-asse, pri-asse, agré-asse, pay-asse, jou-asse, tu-asse, noy-asse
assions,	assiez,	assent	
isse,	isses,	ît	bât-isse, ha-ïsse, d-isse, écriv-isse, f-isse, conduis-isse, suiv-isse, rend-isse, craign-isse, v-isse, ass-isse
issions,	issiez,	issent	
insse,	insses,	înt	v-insse, t-insse, conv-insse, entret-insse, parv-insse, cont-insse, appart-insse
inssions,	inssiez,	inssent	
usse,	usses,	ût	mour-usse, concl-usse, b-usse, conn-usse, véc-usse, f-usse, résol-usse, pourv-usse, d-usse, p-usse
ussions,	ussiez,	ussent	

IMPERATIVE.

———	e, s, ds, ts, cs, x	e	———march-e, cueill-e, bati-s, ren-ds, me-ts, convain-cs, vau-x
ons,	ez,	ent	

'With the exception of a few anomalies to be noticed afterwards, the above table presents the complete system of the terminations assumed by French verbs, the whole number of which is about 4,560. The pupil who wishes not only to translate the text of this book, but to relate also the anecdotes it contains, will derive the greatest facility in doing so from his having previously acquired the art of conjugating verbs. For this purpose, he is recommended, first, to commit the terminations to his memory in their abstract state, remarking which persons are alike in each tense, or which differ, and in what, both with respect to spelling and sound; noticing also the similarities and differences of tenses. Then he is to apply each termination or set of terminations to each example. Lastly, when, knowing the first person of any tense, he can conjugate the others, he may exercise himself in forming the several parts of the verb in all its varieties, according to the following statements.'

* Spelt also *rois, rois, roit; rions, riez, roient.*

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From the body of the work, the following page may serve as a specimen.

LE NARRATEUR FRANCAIS.

1. *Question de lieu.*

"Où est Dieu?" demandit un ecclésiastique à un petit garçon qu'il interrogeait sur son catéchisme. "Je vous répondrai, lui repartit l'enfant, quand vous m'aurez dit où il n'est pas."

2. *Destruction de nos ennemis.*

On reprochait à l'empereur Sigismond qu'au lieu de faire mourir ses ennemis vaincus, il les comblait de grâces, et les remettait en état de lui nuire. "N'est-ce pas détruire mes ennemis, répliqua-t-il, que d'en faire mes amis?"

3. *Gravité.*

Le Docteur Samuel Clarke, ce philosophe et théologian profond, avait un caractère fort enjoué et se plaisait volontiers avec les jeunes gens. Un jour qu'il partageait les jeux de ses petits camarades, on annonça l'arrivée d'un certain fat. "Maintenant, mes amis, leurdit-il, prenons un air grave: voici un sot qui approche."

4. *Homme qui n'est pas de pierre.*

"Quand vous instruirez votre fils dans les lettres, disait-on au philosophe Aristippe, quel profit en retirera-t-il?—Du moins, répondit le sage, lorsqu'il sera assis au theâtre, on ne pourra pas dire de lui, que c'est pierre sur pierre."

One peculiar recommendation of this work, is, that it contains an Index in the form of a vocabulary, adapted to every lesson, and numbered to correspond to it; thus the part of the index corresponding to the page copied above, is as follows:

TITLE.

le, l'	the
narrateur	narrator
français	french

NARRATIONS.

1.

de	of, from, with, by, about
lieu	place, stead
où	where
est	is
dieu	God
demandait	asked
un	a, an, one
ecclésiastique	clergyman
à	to, in, of, from
petit	little, small
garçon	boy
qu', que	whom, which, what, that
il	he, it
sur	on, upon, about
son	his, her, its

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je, j'	I
vous	you, to you
répondrai	shall, will answer
lui	him, to him, to her
repartit	replied
enfant	child, infant
quand	when
m', me	me, to me
aurez	will, shall have
dit	told, said
n', ne	not
est	is
pas	step, pace
ne, n'—pas	not

2.

nos	our
on	some person or persons
que, qu'	that
au	to, at, in the
faire	to do, make or cause
mourir	to die
ses	his, her, its
vaincus	vanquished
les	them
comblait	filled
grâces	favours
et	and
remettait	put, placed again
en	in, into
état	state, condition
nuire	to injure, hurt
ce, c'	this, that, it, these, those
mes	my
répondit	answered
que	this, that, namely, this action
d', de	(action) of
en	of, from, with, by them; out of them
amis	friends

3.

théologien	divine
avait	had
charactère	temper
fort	very
enjoué	playful
se	himself, herself, itself, themselves, to himself, &c.
volontiers	willingly
avec	with
les	the
jeunes	young
gens	persons, people
jour	day
qu'	that, when, in which
partageait	shared, partook
jeux	plays, games
fat	coxcomb, fop
maintenant	now
leur	to them
prenons	let us take
voici	see here, here is, are
sot	fool, foolish
qui	who, which, that

To complete our specimens of this work, it remains only to give the corresponding part of the translation of the first fifty lessons or anecdotes, added as a help to the pupil in his first efforts, and *not interlined*, but given separately *at the end of the volume.*

1. *Question of place.*

"Where is God?" said a clergyman who interrogated a little

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boy on his catechism. "I will answer you," replied the child, "when you have told me where he is not."

2. *Destruction of our enemies.*

Some one reproached the emperor Sigismond with loading his conquered enemies with favours instead of putting them to death, and with enabling them again to injure him. "Do I not destroy my enemies," replied he, "by making them my friends?"

3. *Gravity.*

That profound philosopher and divine, Doctor Samuel Clark, was of a very playful disposition, and was pleased with the company of young people. One day, while he was partaking in the sports of his little comrades, he was informed of the arrival of a certain fop; "Now, my friends," said he to them, "let us look grave: here comes a fool."

By this selection from the contents of the Narrateur, our readers will have perceived that it is a work indicating great skill in actual teaching, and much care for the mental habits of the pupil. The diligent learner receives all the aid he could wish, but is not overwhelmed with officious helps. There is no embarrassing impediment to his advances, and no deduction from the cheering consciousness of progress made by personal effort and application.

This useful work, we are happy to learn, will soon be rendered accessible to teachers in this country.*

* See advertising sheet.

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INTELLIGENCE.

EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.

The city of Zurich is marching in the same career as the capital of Argovie. Its citizens have formed an association to which some bring the tribute of mere scientific knowledge, and others the needful pecuniary aid for the support of a *Technological College*, where at the age of 16 years, are received the pupils of other schools, who abandon their classical studies to devote themselves more especially to commerce and the arts of life. It is only since the commencement of the present year, that this Institution has been open, and it already includes some of the most skilful professors of the canton.

The Instruction is divided into two classes; the first comprehends commercial arithmetic and logarithms, applied geometry, practical mechanics, an abridged history of the three kingdoms of nature; geography, physical and mathematical; natural philosophy; technology; statistics, commercial and manufacturing, of different nations; the German and French languages; calligraphy; drawing; and manual exercises in different trades.

The second class are taught algebra, trigonometry, theoretical mechanics, zoology, mineralogy, botany, applied chemistry, descriptive geometry, civil architecture, commercial law, the art of modelling, and German, French, Italian, and English literature. Thus, the impulse given in England and France, by a few philanthropists, is communicated by degrees, to various parts of the continent; Lausanne, Berne, Geneva and Bâsle, have already technological Institutes for youth or Scientific courses, brought to the level of the comprehension of ordinary adult workmen. These beneficent creations, besides yielding the happiest fruits to the soil where they are already transplanted, cannot fail to extend the influence of good examples to the neighbouring cantons, which include a numerous manufacturing population, worthy of enjoying the zeal of the philanthropists.—*Rev. Ency. transl. in Silliman's Journal.*

COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

From such documents as are afforded us by the 'Collegiate Record' in our files, we have prepared the following table, exhibiting the number of Graduates of the present year from some of the oldest and most flourishing Institutions of our country.

Waterville College, Maine,	14
Bowdoin College, Maine,	32
Dartmouth College, New-Hampshire,	38
Vermont University,	14
Middlebury College, Vermont,	15
Williams College, Massachusetts,	31
Amherst College, Massachusetts,	23
Harvard College, Massachusetts,	47
Brown University, Rhode-Island,	38
Yale College, Connecticut,	79

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Union College, New-York,	68
Hamilton College, New-York,	23
Columbia College, New-York,	34
Princeton College, New-Jersey,	28
Dickinson College, Pennsylvania,	22
University of Pennsylvania,	15
Rutgers College,	5
Geneva College, New-York,	3
Franklin College, Georgia,	19
Hampden-Sydney College, Virginia,	8
Transylvania University,	22
Chapel College, North-Carolina,	18
Washington College, Pennsylvania,	11
Washington College, Hartford, Conn.	10
Georgia University,	30

Hence, it appears, that the number of graduates in the above named Colleges in 1827 is 640. Allowing the number graduated from each of the other Colleges in the Union—to be equal to one fifth of the number of students in each, we find from the Gazetteer, that the graduates for 1827 will not be less than 800. From the first 16 Colleges in the above list, including one or two newly organized in the same states, there are 15 more graduates the present year than on any preceding year. The whole number of Colleges in the United States is more than 50. The whole number of graduates annually is estimated at not less than 800, and allowing to each quadruple the number of the graduating class which, by the way, is considerably less than the truth, it will make the number of undergraduates in the American Colleges 3,200.

The number of Students in our Medical Schools in 1824, was 2,130. It is now probably increased and is equal to, or, perhaps exceeds the number both of Divinity and Law Students in our country. Of the number of our schools for Law and Divinity—our documents do not afford us an exact account.

Our population is 12,000,000, for the education of which, we have 50 colleges, besides several times this number of well endowed and flourishing academies leaving primary schools out of the account. For meeting the intellectual wants of this 12,000,000, we have about 600 newspapers and periodical journals. There is no country, (it is often said), where the means of intelligence are so generally enjoyed by all ranks and where knowledge is so generally diffused among the lower orders of the community, as in our own. The population of those portions of Poland which have successively fallen under the dominion of Russia, is about 20,000,000. To meet the wants of which there are but 15 newspapers, eight of which are printed in Warsaw. But with us a newspaper is the daily fare of almost every meal in almost every family. This is one of the *good results* of the liberty of the press. While we thus contemplate the large and constantly increasing number of our colleges and periodical publications, operating as the engines of acquiring and diffusing intelligence and happiness among the people, we cannot help admiring the wisdom of that "little band" which devised the means of bringing them into existence,—acknowledged its obligation to support them—and which declared, that the worst of despotisms is that in which *ignorance* has the power of rule, or is made the instrument of corrupt men in accomplishing their corrupt designs.

Richmond Visitor.

HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW-YORK.

From the Third Annual Report, made Nov. 12, 1827.

The trustees of the High School Society of New-York, in obedience to the direction of their charter, present to the stockholders a general account of the

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state of the institution under their charge, and of their proceedings during the last year.

It will be recollected that the schools were in credit and prosperity, when the present board of trustees were elected, and the general course and nature of the studies were detailed at large, in the last year's annual report. We have the satisfaction to assure the stockholders, that nothing has occurred during the present year, either to check the useful career of the institution, or to diminish the public confidence in the diligence and ability with which the principals and teachers in the two schools have discharged their trust.

In the High School for boys, the present amount of scholars is five hundred and forty-three, which falls short of the full compliment; but this deficiency is probably but temporary, and the schools are necessarily subject to some fluctuations in the number of scholars, arising from local causes, which have no connexion with the permanent character and merit of the establishment. We were apprehensive at one time of losing the valuable services of Mr. Barnes, one of the principals of the High School, but we are happily relieved from that misfortune, and we entertain confident expectations of the full and continued patronage of the public.

The monitorial system of instruction has recommended itself by the test of experience, and there is rarely any instance in our country to be met with of such large communities of scholars, affording equally excellent and indubitable proofs of order, discipline, emulation, ardent study, and rapid improvement.

In the introductory department of the boys' High School, the average number of scholars during the last year has been 210, and of that number 60 have been promoted to the higher studies of the junior department. In this large class of very young boys, there is one teacher, one assistant, and a considerable number of monitors. Here are disclosed the very first symptoms of infant genius, and the tender mind receives its earliest impressions of the elements of science, and the value and beauty of moral principles. The boys in this department study the alphabet, spelling, reading, writing on slates, the simplest and most general principles of arithmetic and geography; and instruction is also given in the most attractive manner, by pictures and familiar lectures on natural history. A committee of the trustees who visited this department, observed in one of their reports, that the boys at that time amounted to 243, and they found that 184 were studying arithmetical tables, and 64 geography, and nearly all of them were studying words, definitions, and spelling lessons, and that their proficiency in geography in particular was highly commendable.

The junior department of the boys' school presents the higher interest, of a further enlargement of the faculties of the young scholar. The average number of boys during the last year was 185, and of them 65 have been promoted to the senior department. There is here one teacher, and two assistants, and the monitorial system appears in all its advantage. This system throughout the entire school is now greatly assisted by a double class of monitors, one of which is under the instruction of a teacher, while the other class is on duty. The scholars and the monitors therefore advance with equal steps in the course of improvement, and while the one class is instructing the pupils, the other is enlarging its own capacity to teach.

The studies in this department are spelling, reading, penmanship, English grammar, arithmetic, geography, American history, elocution, linear drawing, and the rudiments of mapping. Familiar lectures are also weekly given on physical and political geography, and portions of natural history.

The committee from the board of trustees in the report of one of their examinations of this department, stated that the method of teaching arithmetic, adopted by the principals, was simple and comprehensive. The pupils were taught the true principles and reason of the science, and they followed the arithmetical questions stated with perfect facility and great accuracy. Geography was taught excellently well, and the proficiency in the studies generally was creditable to the scholars and reputable to their instructers. There

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was a general spirit of activity and emulation, and a well balanced relation preserved between the teachers and the pupils.

In the senior department we are presented with the best and happiest results of the system of mutual instruction: a system which awakens emulation, and shows the value of industry, of good order, of mild and efficient discipline, and of the great facility and attractive charm of monitorial teaching, coming from the lips of decorous and ambitious equals.

The average number of scholars in this department for the last year is 148, and there are two teachers and one assistant, besides one teacher of the French and another of the Spanish language. The studies in this department are arithmetic, algebra, penmanship, linear drawing, mapping, essay writing or composition, English grammar and elocution; and in those studies all the pupils in the department partake. But there is in this department a judicious classification of the studies, so as to adapt the course of instruction to the genius of the scholars, and to their future prospects and destination.

In consequence of this division in the studies, there are 30 scholars who are taught book keeping and an equal number geometry, trigonometry, mensuration and practical mathematics. There are 100 who are taught geography, 30 who are taught Greek, 70 who are taught Latin, 80 who are taught French, 20 who are taught Spanish, and 40 are instructed in landscape drawing. Weekly lectures are given on natural philosophy, chemistry, mineralogy, and other portions of natural history, and the lectures are accompanied with experiments by means of a good apparatus.

The reports from this department by committees of the board of trustees, who have frequently examined it, have been highly encouraging, and very honourable to the character of the institution. The specimens of penmanship, book keeping, arithmetic and drawing have been neat and accurate. The scholars have been examined in the learned languages, and passages were promiscuously selected from Homer, Xenophon, the Greek Testament, Livy, Cæsar, Virgil, and Cicero's Orations; and the proficiency of the students was very gratifying. The large class which read and translate French, showed that they had been well taught, and possessed a familiarity with the phrases and peculiar idioms of the language. It further appeared that the classes in geometry, algebra and arithmetic understood the rules and possessed great readiness in applying them; and the more advanced algebraists in particular showed an accuracy and quickness which would do honour to any seminary. Questions are dictated to the scholars, who write them simultaneously on slates, and almost simultaneously give prompt and accurate answers. A select class appeared to possess a solid and correct acquaintance with the general principles of natural philosophy and chemistry; and the interest which the scholars generally took in their studies, and their proficiency in all the branches of education taught in this department, equally surprised and delighted those who attended the examinations.

The plan of rewards in the High School by premiums and of punishment by penalties, has been found to be efficacious, but higher tokens of approbation have been deemed desirable, and an improved mode of distributing tickets of merit has been recommended, calculated to increase their value, and gratify the expectations of the parties concerned.

And upon this general view of the studies and conduct of nearly 600 young pupils in the male branch of the High School, who can doubt of its immense public importance, or avoid feeling a deep interest in its welfare? It is upon the encouragement and countenance to be given to such institutions, that the future prosperity, freedom, virtue, and happiness of our country very essentially depend. The elements of knowledge designed to teach young minds their rights and their highest interests, and to fit them to take an intelligent and discreet share, in the complicated concerns and grave duties of social life, are first taught and radically imbibed in this and other kindred schools. We surely do not appeal in vain to the good sense and patriotism of the proprietors

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of this institution. Unless we can diffuse very extensively among the rising generation, a knowledge of the ordinary details of practical science, they will be unfitted for public trust. Our free governments require a sober, well instructed, and virtuous population, furnished with a knowledge and capacity for business, and educated in the strict discipline of well organized schools. All our hopes and wishes rest on this foundation. Without this controlling principle, popular government is liable to be perverted and to become formidable by its abuses, to the safety and happiness of the people.

[The state of the Female High School will be given in our next Number.]

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

A New Treatise on the use of the Globes, or a Philosophical View of the Earth and Heavens: comprehending an account of the Figure, Magnitude, and Motion of the Earth, with the Natural Changes of its Surface, caused by Floods, Earthquakes, &c. Together with the Principles of Meteorology and Astronomy, with the Theory of the Tides, &c. Preceded by an extensive Selection of Astronomical and other Definitions, and illustrated by a great Variety of Problems, Questions for the Examination of Students, &c. &c. Designed for the Instruction of Youth. By Thomas Keith. Fourth American from the last London Edition. Revised and corrected by Robert Adrain, LL.D. F.A.P.S., F.AA.S., &c. and Professor of Mathematics in Rutgers' College, New-Brunswick, New-Jersey. New-York; Samuel Wood and Sons. 1826. 8vo. pp. 334.

Keith's treatise needs no commendation of ours; and the name of Dr. Adrain is a sufficient security for the accuracy of this improved edition. We mention the work, rather for the purpose of recommending it to teachers, as a work of reference and satisfactory information for themselves. After trying several of the more compendious treatises on the globes, we have found nothing so useful, even to young scholars, as an oral abstract of this valuable book,—communicated in short and easy lessons, illustrated by the globes;—the pupils themselves writing down the problems, in succession, as they solved them. The difficulty of some of the problems is, in this way, sufficiently reduced for juvenile learners, whose knowledge is thus rendered more exact and more practical.

For the personal use of students in high schools and other institutions, no work, we believe, can at present be found better calculated to furnish an ample and thorough knowledge of its subject.

Elements of Arithmetic, Theoretical and Practical; adapted to the use of Schools, and to Private Study. By F. R. Hassler, F.A.P.S. New-York; James Bloomfield. 1826. 12mo. pp. 215.

The author of this little book is evidently well acquainted with his subject, which he has treated in an ingenious manner, and with no small degree of originality. He has followed the analytical plan; and had his work preceded the admirable productions of Mr. Colburn, we should have regarded it as an

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important and highly valuable addition to the books in this department of education. As it is, we would recommend this work to the notice of teachers, in the belief that even the most skilful may find some hints in its pages, which will be serviceable to them in teaching. We apprehend, however, that the book is not exactly fitted for the use of schools, unless it be in connexion with some other work. There seems to be a deficiency of questions for the exercise of pupils. In this respect it differs widely from the publications of Mr. Colburn, in which the learner himself is led to the discovery of principles, through a succession of practical questions, skilfully arranged: whereas, in these Elements, the author becomes the guide to the pupil, and conducts him by his own reasoning to the rules which he wishes to communicate. On this account we think the book will be more useful in the hands of teachers than of pupils.

We are happy to observe that the merits of this work have been sufficiently appreciated to lead to its introduction into the West Point academy, and several other reputable seminaries.

The Primary Class Book, a Selection of Easy Lessons in Reading for the Younger Classes in Common Schools. By Thomas J. Lee, Compiler of a Spelling Book containing the Rudiments of the English Language. Hallowell; Glazier & Co. 1827. 18mo. pp. 178.

This little volume contains, on the whole, a good selection. The pieces are for the most part intelligible and favourable to useful thought and good feeling.

We ought, however, to say that a book prepared originally for the younger children at common schools in this country, and leading them to think more of objects around them, would seem likely to be still more useful.

Practical and Mental Arithmetic, on new Plan, in which Mental Arithmetic is combined with the use of the Slate; containing a complete system for Practical Purposes; being in Dollars and Cents. Second Edition, revised and enlarged, with Exercise for the Slate. To which is added a Practical System of Book Keeping. By Roswell C. Smith. Boston; Richardson and Lord, and S. G. Goodrich. 1827. 18mo. pp. 197.

A careful examination of this valuable work will show that its author has compiled it, as all books for school use ought to be compiled—from the results of actual experiment and observation in the school room. It is entirely a practical work; combining the merits of Colburn's system with copious practice on the slate.

Two circumstances enhance very much the value of this book. It is very comprehensive, containing twice the usual quantity of matter in works of this class; while by judicious attention to arrangement and printing, it is rendered perhaps the cheapest book in this department of education. The brief system of Book Keeping attached to the arithmetic will be a valuable aid to more complete instruction in common schools, to which the work is, in other respects, so peculiarly adapted.

There are several very valuable peculiarities in this work, for which we cannot, in a notice, find sufficient space. We would recommend a careful examination of the book to all teachers, who are desirous of combining good theory with copious and rigid practice.

To enable our readers to form a comparative idea of Mr. Smith's system, we may say, briefly, that it corresponds in its leading features to that of Mr. Lovell, noticed in a recent number of our Journal, with this exception, that it is composed without reference to the monitorial method.

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First Principles of English Spelling and Reading. Containing the words of the New Testament, arranged in Lessons adapted to the capacity of Learners in Primary and Sabbath Schools. By Caleb H. Snow, M.D. Boston: James Loring. 1827. 18mo. pp. 72.

The most valuable part of this very full and accurate spelling book, is, perhaps, the columns of proper names in which children find so much difficulty.

The reading lessons are not, we think, so judiciously selected. They consist too much of detached phrases. A few of the easier parables would have been more interesting and more useful.

On the important question whether the Testament should be used at all in common schools, we would not be understood as deciding. Much certainly must depend on the teacher's judgment in selecting intelligible passages. But while the sacred volume continues to be employed for school purposes, such books as the one before us cannot but prove useful and acceptable to the teacher.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Idle Hours Employed, or the New Publication. A Selection of Moral Tales. New-York: W. B. Gilley. 1827. 12mo. pp. 236.

These tales are all of a good moral complexion, but written with rather various success. Some are composed with too evident reference to a premeditated result; and some give a very natural and striking succession of events. Of the longer tales the Fairy's Gift Revoked proves, we think, somewhat dull and tedious: but the Deserter wears such an air of truth, and is so exact in circumstance, that we could very easily suppose it founded on fact; while the moral which it inculcates has all the force that could be desired.

Always Happy, or Anecdotes of Felix and his sister Serena. A Tale written for her children, by a Mother. Boston: Bowles and Dearborn. 1827. 18mo. pp. 142.

This story has a captivating title, to which the whole book corresponds with uncommon felicity. It is a succession of domestic occurrences, each furnishing a natural and impressive lesson for personal improvement, and tending invariably to the happiness of the reader. The degree of *feeling* ascribed to the children, however, is perhaps unnecessarily intense in some instances.

We do not like dry narratives of mere indifferent facts. But few writers for children seem to attempt, to the extent which they might, the moral improvement of children, through the medium of their *understanding*.

The Young Naturalist, a Tale. By Alicia Catherine Mant. Boston: Munroe and Francis — New-York: C. S. Francis. 1827. 18mo. pp. 226.

The chief excellence of this tale is, that while it affords much general instruction and amusement, it aims throughout and very successfully, at the eradication of one injurious though not very culpable habit. It corrects, by a succession of mild but effective expedients, that immoderate attachment to a favourite pursuit, which is apt to produce a neglect of duty.

The Juvenile Plutarch; containing accounts of the Lives of Celebrated Children, and of the Infancy of Persons who have been illustrious for their Virtues or Talents. With Engravings.

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Boston: Munroe and Francis — New-York: C. S. Francis. 1827. 18mo. pp. 252.

This interesting volume will enable parents to answer satisfactorily the common inquiry of children, "Is it a true story?" This circumstance gives a peculiar efficacy to the moral instruction conveyed by narratives; and at all events secures some useful knowledge of biography or history.

The only disadvantage arising from such reading, is, that the eminence of the characters, and the publicity of the circumstances described, seem to render example less familiar, and excellence less attainable, than when brought by the aid of fiction, within the circle of domestic life and of ordinary action. The volume before us, however, contains so much *juvenile* anecdote, that it possesses many of the advantages aimed at in fiction, along with the strong recommendations of truth and history. The cuts with which this book is furnished are generally executed with accuracy and good taste.

Fruit and Flowers, a Religious Story for Children. Boston: Cottons and Barnard. 1827. 18mo. pp. 76.

This little volume bespeaks much acquaintance with the minds and feelings of children. The interest of the narrative is sustained with uncommon talent; and the language is characterized by simplicity and natural ease, not without a good deal of beauty.

It is to parents, however, that this story will prove most useful, by suggesting happy methods of influencing the minds of children, in a manner consistent with the free exercise of their own thoughts.

Evenings in Boston. Boston: Bowles and Dearborn. 1827. 18mo. pp. 121.

There is much varied instruction as well as amusement in this volume. The geographical information is very interesting; and the family incidents and characters give animation to the evening scenes, and afford relief to the other parts of the story. The style of the book is unusually correct and spirited for a publication of this class. The moral character of the incidents is simple and natural; the ambitious intentions and affected sentiments, so current in books of this class, being happily avoided.

POSTSCRIPT.

Articles postponed till next No. Thoughts on books for children—Review of Professor Goodrich's Greek Grammar—View of education in France, (from a highly interesting work recently received)—Variable Orthography—Several Notices—Suggestions relating to the formation of a Society for the Improvement of Education—Intelligence of the New-Haven Gymnasium—Infant Schools in Philadelphia, &c.

☞ The unusual press of matter has rendered it necessary to add 8 pages to our present number, which, for this month, will add of course a little to the *postage*. But as the next No. will contain the corresponding number of pages *less* than usual, the postage of the *first two* months will be the same as heretofore.

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AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

NO. II. FEBRUARY, 1828. VOL. III.

EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

University of Paris.

[IN most countries of Europe, public attention is at present directed with unusual earnestness to the subject of education. The necessity of national and legislative measures for its improvement, is felt with more distinctness than at any former period. The patronage of government is extended to instruction, with a more liberal spirit and with a more energetic action, than could hitherto be traced in public measures for improvement. These omens of general amelioration are strikingly observable in France and England, and not less so in Scotland, where the work from which the following extracts are taken, was published with a view, as will be observed, of aiding recent efforts for raising the existing standard of public education in that country.

Whether legislative enactments, beyond the support of common schools, can ever be productive of good, in the United States, we cannot confidently express an opinion. Public provision may interfere with personal exertion and responsibility. Still nothing, we think, can be more evident than that, in this country, the actual condition of education is far below the privileges and the ability of the people. We would not, however, be understood as complaining of supineness and inactivity. On the contrary, the successive numbers of our own Journal furnish, we think, satisfactory proof of progressive improvement in regard to education. A more vigorous impulse, however, seems still to be needed, to render our style of education more adequate to our circumstances. The work from which the present article is extracted, is written with scholarship and taste, and is evidently the fruit of much laborious research. Its contents, as our

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readers will perceive, are rich in historical interest, and in full information on its subject.

The title is as follows.

A General View of the Present System of Public Education in France, and of the Laws, Regulations, and Courses of Study, in the different Faculties, Colleges, and Inferior Schools which now compose the Royal University of that Kingdom: preceded by a Short History of the University of Paris before the Revolution. By DAVID JOHNSTON, M. D., Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, &c. 1827.

[The introduction gives a view of the objects and design of the work.]

THE present appointment of a royal commission to inquire into the state of the Scottish Universities has excited very general attention and interest. The distinguished rank and talents of the individuals who form it,—the vital importance of the duties imposed upon them,—the extended and comprehensive view they are understood to have taken of the subject,—all give good earnest that the result of their labours will prove highly beneficial to the cause of science and education. At such a time, a short history of the University of Paris, with some account of the various enactments now in force for regulating and arranging the courses of study in the higher faculties, as well as in the inferior schools, since its new organization, may not be uninteresting.

Destroyed, like many other useful institutions, at the period of the Revolution, it was sometime before the establishments of public instruction in France were again placed upon a proper footing. But as the reign of anarchy passed away, and the government became consolidated, the institutions of the country acquired a more stable form and existence, and a new and comprehensive system of general education was organized. This, in many of its essential features, is deserving of a very high commendation, and presents a most interesting subject of consideration from the nature of its constitution, which resembles in so very few points what it was previous to the Revolution, and is perhaps in general so little known in this country.

The different schools of France are no longer independent of each other, and no longer possess the right of framing their own laws and statutes: they are now all dependent upon the same power, regulated by the same laws, and subject to the same supreme jurisdiction.

The plan adopted in the following pages gives a short detail

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of the early rise and after progress of the University of Paris before its suppression; then a sketch of the temporary systems that succeeded it; and, finally, an account of the Royal University of France; and it has been the object to make this as concise as is consistent with perspicuity and distinctness. Perhaps not the least interesting part of the whole may be that which treats of the courses of study required for obtaining the higher degrees of academic honours in the learned professions, and the preparatory courses of liberal elementary education, which are imperative upon young men before they can be permitted to enter upon the prosecution of these professions.

The University of France presents a system of instruction very complete in all its parts. The progression followed in the distribution of the various branches of literature; the excellent arrangement of the inferior schools, which leaves little to desire on the head of elementary education; and the absolute necessity of completing a thorough preliminary course of philosophical and general study before entering the faculties, merit great and deserved admiration. At a period then, when inquiries are said to be making into the present state of science and literature in this country, not only in their deeper but also in their more elementary branches, the constitution of the University of France, differing so much as it does from that of the Scottish Universities, may be studied with advantage, and may afford hints for improvement in many points connected with the system of education in Scotland.

The short account contained in the following pages forms part of a more extensive work intended for publication, in which it is meant to give a particular view of institutions and establishments connected with general continental literature and education. At the present time, however, imperfect as it is, it may not be found without interest as a separate work; and, in thus giving it to the public, it may be added, that nothing has been advanced that is not founded upon official documents and personal observation during a residence of considerable length in France.

[The work commences with a history of the University of Paris, as follows.]

The early history of the University of Paris is involved in much obscurity. Its foundation goes back to very remote antiquity; but the precise epoch of its establishment as a school cannot well be ascertained. When we consider the barbarous state of letters in the early ages of the French monarchy, and

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the characters of the princes who then governed France, we cannot hope to find traces of any establishment dedicated to the promotion of the sciences, or to the instruction of those who might wish to advance in the career of literature.

Some of the early French monarchs, however, there is reason to believe, had in their own palaces seminaries for the education of the young nobility of their court; but it is to the reign of Charlemagne that we must refer the foundation of what has since become the University of France. The great partiality of that emperor for theology, induced him to pay more attention to it than to the other sciences, which at first were much neglected in the school of Paris; for though, in one of his edicts, dated 805, there is to be found an order to send pupils to study medicine, yet that science was hardly known; and it is not till three centuries after him, that its progress can be traced, and its improvement observed. More enlightened than his predecessors, this monarch did not confine the benefits of education to the nobility, but admitted, with equal facility, and under every encouragement, youth of the inferior walks of life.* At the close of the ninth century, Remy, a monk of Auxerre, was very instrumental in keeping up the character which the school had already acquired under Charlemagne. His numerous disciples, inspired with the enthusiasm of their master, laboured for its advancement and prosperity, and formed other teachers, whose descendants flourished in the twelfth century, the period at which the University first obtained those numerous and powerful privileges that have contributed so much to its celebrity. If, therefore, the University did not exist in an incorporated form before this time, a succession of teachers can be traced back to the age of Charlemagne, and a gradual improvement can be observed in its institutions down to the epoch when it received those favours from its sovereigns and the church, which have since rendered it so important a body.

It was under William de Champeaux en Brie that the great fame of the Parisian school first commenced. Before this period, besides the limited extent of the privileges it possessed, its reputation was obscured by the existence of other schools, especially those of Rheims and Chartres,† which from the celebrity of their teachers, were very much frequented. But as the city of Paris rose in importance, the school rose with it; while other institutions, whose renown depended solely on the fame of their professors, gradually, as *they* died, sunk into insignificance.

* Duboullai Hist. Univers. Paris, vol. ii. p. 572. †Crevier, vol. i. p. 2.

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The celebrity of its teachers and the number of its students now increased so rapidly, that it was found necessary to establish some sort of government in the University, in order to keep up the regularity and obedience requisite to its welfare; and for this reason, towards the close of the twelfth century, it was incorporated into a society.* The studies were now carried on in a more regular and systematic manner, and, instead of theology and the arts being the sole objects of interest, medicine began to assume the form of a science.

The principal privileges possessed by the University were granted by Louis VII., and his son Philip Augustus. These privileges were so great as almost to encroach on those of the monarch, and to give it an existence entirely independent of the state. By an *ordonnance* of Philip Augustus, it was exempted from the royal jurisdiction, and both the judges and citizens were exhorted to aid in keeping its rights untouched. It was also permitted to choose its own authorities, and to administer justice for itself. In very particular cases only could the judicial authorities of the city interfere with the students; and even then the judge was obliged to deliver over the culprit, as soon as possible, to the spiritual arm.

The person of the rector was almost sacred, and the *Prevot* of the city was forced to take an oath to the University,—a ceremony which, though afterwards permitted to fall into disuse, was never abrogated, and continued in force for a very long period: the last *Prevot* that took the oath was M. de Villeroi, in 1593.†

The great privileges granted by Philip Augustus had their origin in the following circumstance:—The servant of a member of the University having gone to fetch some wine for his master, got into some dispute in the *cabaret*, was beaten, and the vessel he carried broken. Enraged at this insult, a party of students repaired to the house, and maltreated the landlord in such a manner as to leave him almost dead. The citizens now became in their turn enraged, and having armed themselves, they surrounded the house into which the students had retired, and put several of them to death. The heads of the University upon this instantly repaired to the king and demanded redress: The king, dreading that they might quit Paris if this was refused, readily promised them what they demanded: the persons accused were punished in the severest manner, and to prevent any

* Duboullai, vol. ii. p. 491. † Crevier, vol. i. p. 281.

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such accident in future, the privileges already mentioned were granted.*

[This interesting history we shall resume in our next number.]

ADVANTAGES TO BE EXPECTED FROM THE FORMATION OF A SOCIETY FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATION.

This subject was introduced to our readers at page 485 of our first volume. Its vast importance to teachers and parents—indeed to the whole community, and particularly to the young, whose interests it so deeply concerns, will furnish sufficient reason for returning to it, and endeavouring to mention more distinctly some of its claims on public attention.

It is a fact, not undeserving of notice, that at present there is so little concert and cooperation among colleges and schools in all parts of the country,—so little of a common interest felt and expressed, where an open and free correspondence would be so favourable to effectual improvement in instruction, and to the advancement of the public good.

How to accomplish the formation of a very numerous society of intelligent and efficient men, throughout the country, we do not pretend to prescribe. This, indeed, is not the immediate object. Local societies or associations must first be formed, under the direct impulse of local circumstances. A general society may then very naturally be formed, by the union of all or of many, and uniformity of measures, as far as desirable, may be in this way secured.

An approach to the object of our present remarks, is successfully made in the county associations of Connecticut, for the improvement of common schools. Here certainly is a desirable point at which to begin, and from which to dispense an extensive and happy influence throughout the community. Let professional men, and others who feel peculiarly the benefits of education, commence such endeavours in their respective vicinities, and a full and noble result will be ensured.

An association composed and organized as a Society for promoting Improvement in Education, can produce any effect only by acting on *public opinion*. It has no power entrusted to it, and will

* Duboullai.

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command funds only to a very limited extent. It can neither establish nor regulate places for teaching; and neither appoint, remove, nor control instructers. It can do nothing but offer information and opinions to the community; and induce those who have authority to act on them. Before we proceed further, therefore, it may be well to inquire, why such a society should wish to affect public opinion, and in what ways it can best do it.

To affect public opinion on the subject of education is desirable, because the modes of instruction, the means used, and even the teachers themselves in many or most of our places of education, from the humblest primary schools up to the best of our colleges, are very imperfect. Associated effort is desirable, because it is not possible for any one to point out, at once, where are the greatest deficiencies, what are the best remedies, how the work of improvement may be most wisely and effectually begun, for no individual, probably, has knowledge enough and facts enough on the subject to draw general conclusions that may be safely trusted and used. Union would furnish knowledge and means. One person, perhaps, is acquainted with one school, and another is acquainted with another: one knows much about the books used, and another is acquainted, perhaps, with many teachers; and though none can have a view of the whole ground, or even of any considerable portion of it, yet, perhaps, by well concerted, vigorous, and persevering efforts, these advantages might be gained.

The first question which naturally arises on this subject is, why, spending as we do in Massachusetts, for instance, more money for education, than is spent by the same amount of population in the world, feeling more anxiety about it, and making greater exertions for it, we yet fall, in many respects, so much below other countries,—and, in all respects, so much below what we have a fair right to claim. This is a question, in which every member of the community has a deep interest; but, before we attempt to answer it, we must have much information, which has never yet been collected.

The first thing, then, that such a society as we propose to form, can well undertake, is, perhaps, to obtain *a knowledge of as many places of education as possible*, the books used in them, the systems of teaching pursued, and the character of their instructers, beginning with the city of Boston, for example, and extending our inquiries gradually as the means of such a society might be enlarged, and as it might feel itself safer and stronger.

There are different ways of effecting this. The society might

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employ an agent, who could be assisted by committees or by individual members of the society, who should visit schools in, person, learn their character and condition by careful inquiry, and spread before the society afterwards, in detail, an account of their respective advantages and defects. Correspondence might also be held on the same or similar subjects, with persons at a distance, especially such as might be elected into the body of the society, and so made more effective associates, than they could be in any other way.

The society might purchase books on education, and school books, and so make a *library* to which all instructers and all interested in teaching might resort; to which the society might go themselves, and send their committees, and learn how education is carried on, and what books and means are used for it in those parts of the world, where it has been brought to its best state. And finally, special committees might be charged with special subjects, such as the education of teachers, the best modes of instruction, or any similar subject, and receive from them a more distinct and useful view of it, than could otherwise be obtained.

There are, no doubt, other modes of operation, which might be adopted, but which experience will discover. Through those already mentioned, however, much information may be easily acquired, we mean minute, detailed, practical information, such as does not now exist, and such as can hardly be collected in any other way; such indeed partly, as the authority of this Commonwealth failed recently to obtain.* Such information as this, must be the basis of all efforts and operations; and until it is obtained, and so obtained that it can be confidently relied on, nothing can be done.

When, however, a society shall have obtained the needful facts and details respecting the present state of education among us, it can then, by its committees and in other ways, begin to discuss *the means of improvement*, and how far it may be expedient to act, even when improvement is most obviously needed. Such a society might consider for instance, such subjects as are now much discussed, infant schools, monitorial instruction, physical education, and others of the same sort; and determine whether our influence should be used to promote either of them, and how it ought to be used. In short, according to its very name, the society might consider at large, how education, in

* We allude to the Act of March, 1826, (See Journal of Education Vol. 1, p. 231,) and the very partial compliance with it, on the part of school committees.

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all its branches, may be raised and quickened; and thus, in some measure, perform a part of the great duty every man owes to the generation that has assisted to educate him, and to the generation he is to assist in educating.

But, in professing these as some of the objects that might claim the attention, and be found within the influence of a society such as we propose, we should, at the same time be desirous *to begin its operations in the most unobtrusive manner*, and on a small or even humble scale. We should be desirous to begin at home, where improvement and reform must always be begun, if begun effectually; and until something is really hazarded and done there, we should be very unwilling to venture abroad with suggestions of change. But when this is done, the circle might be extended, taking care, however, to go no faster and no farther, than led by knowledge and experience, and accompanied by a salutary influence and general good will.

We will now proceed to mention, more in detail, some of the objects which might be promoted by a society formed for the purpose of improving education.

The diffusion of useful suggestions on *domestic education and parental management*,—with special reference to early and effective measures for securing health and moral improvement, in conjunction with the first stages of intellectual culture.

These great points are by no means universally neglected. On the contrary, they have never been so successfully attended to as within the last twenty years. But nothing worthy of the nature or the destination of man has yet been effected. The parent has but little security that he shall not have to submit to the calamity of the premature death of his children, by some of those many forms of disease, which may all be traced to a want of seasonable attention to regular and adequate bodily exercise.

Another highly important and useful field of exertion would be opened, by the establishing of *infant schools*, with a view to aid the efforts of parents, and promote the happiness of children, at the age when even the best regulated nursery can hadly afford sufficient scope or sufficiently varied occupation and amusement, and while the child is yet too young to be pleasantly and profitably employed even in a primary school. Every day is bringing us fresh intelligence of the vast amount of good that is effected by such schools in England; and public sentiment is daily becoming more favourably impressed towards them here.

The appointment of a committee to inquire into the expediency of establishing such schools in more of our larger cities

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than are now provided with them, would probably lead to useful results in the improvement of education.

The condition of our *primary schools* would be much improved by the assistance derived from such a society as is proposed. These schools, it is believed, are on the whole well managed. But several important improvements are urgently called for. The healthful activity, and in a great measure, the happiness of children, at the age of those in primary schools, require free access to the open air, and ample space for recreation without doors, as well as large, airy, well lighted school rooms. The aspect of every thing connected with education, should be rendered as pleasant as possible at all stages, but especially the earliest. Very opposite to this is the actual state of things in many of our primary schools. The children have no inviting play-ground when without; and low, dismal, close rooms when within school. Improvements, it is true, have recently been made in some schools, as to the accommodation of the scholars. But nothing yet is done compared to what in this case are the actual demands of humanity, on behalf of the children.

The moral instruction given at the primary schools, is but occasional and slight, when regarded in its vast importance at this early period of life.

The intellectual discipline of the scholars, is, in some instances, very good; but in many it is very imperfect: too little use is as yet made of the enlivening influence of mutual instruction. The result is, that taking the scholars singly, they are compelled to attend school, and sit motionless for five hours in the day, if not longer; while each receives actually but a few minutes' personal attention or instruction. This branch of the subject, however, is too fruitful in details, to permit any thing like an adequate statement, at present. The aid of a society such as is proposed, would be very conducive to the immediate practical improvement of these schools—especially as the age of the scholars, and many other circumstances, afford peculiar facilities for whatever changes might seem likely to be beneficial.

The low condition of many of the *common schools* throughout this as well as other states, is so often and so urgently brought forward by those whose attention has been particularly attracted to them, that it is unnecessay to enlarge on this subject. But if the actual state of most of our district schools were fully brought before the public mind, no deficiency of proper measures for improving them, it is believed, would long remain a subject of complaint. Perhaps one of the most effectual expedients for

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raising the condition of common schools, and particularly that much neglected branch of them, the schools taught in the summer months—would be the appointment of an individual, whose duty it should be to visit every district school in the state of Massachusetts, for instance, and return a full and exact report of each, so as to present a correct view of the existing state of these schools, and thus prepare the way for a thorough reformation.

But it is not only in what are called the lower departments of education that improvement is desirable;—and even admitting that the various stages of *preparatory* and *collegiate* and *professional* education, were not chargeable with any serious defects; still, a society which might aid the gradual and silent progress of improvement in these departments which might enable instruction with greater facility and success to meet the constantly enlarging demands arising from the progress of the human mind on other subjects—would be an object of earnest desire to every friend of improvement. In the several stages of education, however, which have just been mentioned, much remains to be done for the benefit of that portion of the community which enjoys the direct advantages of higher instruction, and at the same time for the collateral improvement of all. For in few of the schools where education of a superior kind is acquired, is there that full and happy adaptation to the wants of society in its present form, which every enlightened mind must regard as indispensable to the great objects that are or ought to be aimed at in educating any class or portion of society.

The introduction of *books* properly adapted to the business of instruction, is another point of great importance to the improvement of education. Amidst the numerous works, in every department, which proffer their respective claims on public patronage, it is not always easy for a teacher, or even for a committee or other body to make the best selection; and many improper influences are apt to interfere with that impartiality in selecting, which is so essential to right instruction in any branch, and indeed, to good education generally. It is not merely in selection from among existing works, however, that the benefit of a society for the improvement of education would be felt. Peculiar facilities would naturally be presented to such a society for composing or compiling books adapted to the improving state of education, and better suited than most of those now in use, to aid the labours of the teacher.

A society, such as is proposed, would probably facilitate a

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measure of great importance to the improvement of education—the establishment of seminaries of instruction for *teachers*, where persons of that occupation might be qualified for the duties of their office. The vast chain of consequences connected with the formation of such institutions, will present itself to the minds of all who reflect on how much mental power is deposited in the hands of those who form the intellectual character, through all the most important of its stages; and who have it, as it were, in their option to brighten or overcast the prospects of each successive generation.

Some measures for facilitating the extensive reception of *European works* on the various departments of education, and of transferring to our systems of instruction whatever might seem valuable in them, would be another object of attention with the society, and would afford opportunity of effecting extensive and permanent good.

Till a regular seminary for the instruction of teachers shall have been established, one means of elevating the condition of common schools, would be secured by the employment of a proper person to deliver *lectures*, designed for the express purpose of communicating useful knowledge in various departments of science, selected with reference to the circumstances of a teacher's life and occupation. The results, probably, of such a measure would be the personal improvement of teachers themselves, the enlargement of their views on the subject of education,—a better perception of the important charge with which they are entrusted, and more practical and more skilful methods of instruction. The effect, in a word, would be to rouse the minds of instructers from a state of apathy, or inaction, from the drudgery of mechanical routine in their office—to a lively interest in the improvement of the young, to vigorous personal efforts for raising the intellectual condition of the great body of the people to something more worthy of the noble sacrifices of their ancestors, and of the happy auspices under which their country is pursuing its benignant career in meliorating the condition of man.

The preparing or selecting of useful *tracts*, adapted to the various classes of the community, would be a very effective means of increasing popular interest in the great subject of education. To accomplish any of its objects to a desirable extent, a society such as is proposed must succeed in producing an extensive impression in the community, that something ought to be done, towards the great object in view,—and through those particular channels which to the society seem most eligible. In a

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word, the community must be prepared for a wide, and cordial, and efficient cooperation with all the movements of such a society. This result will, in all probability, be most easily attained by the dissemination of popular tracts, addressed to the community as such, and at the same time to its various classes, with reference to their respective spheres of action and of influence. The learned professions, severally, ought to be appealed to—parents, and especially mothers, who have so peculiar a control on education,—teachers and, above all, youth themselves—the chief objects of all our solicitude. It may not be improper to observe, here, that this class of the community, in England, is separately addressed in eight or ten different periodical works, devoted exclusively to the instruction and improvement of juvenile readers.* It is too true that hitherto the young have been led up to education, under external influences, and that a deep personal desire for improvement has not been sufficiently cultivated in them, as the grand spring to application and acquisition. Education has not been sufficiently rendered a voluntary and spontaneous affair.

The peculiar office of the *clergy*, renders their efforts in conjunction with those of a society of this sort an object of earnest desire. That their exertions would be freely contributed, no one can doubt; and that their influence in promoting the objects of the society would be peculiarly efficient, is equally evident. If, as is presumed will be the case, the aid of the clergy can be secured without unreasonably encroaching on their time, the actual business of the society in all its attempts to disseminate information, or procure it for specific objects, would be vastly facilitated; and indeed (the suggestion is respectfully made) the pulpit itself may contribute a powerful assistance, by occasionally turning public attention in definite directions to our duties as citizens and as Christians, in regard to the wider dissemination and the higher improvement of education.

The *appointment of a committee* for each or at least some of the objects mentioned in this draught, as well as for others which might present themselves in conversation and discussion relative to such points, would probably effect something definite and satisfactory within a very short time—at all events, would bring before the society, and, through it, before the community generally, a vast amount of useful information, which would serve as a guide to subsequent measures calculated to promote improvement.

* A few, do, indeed, exist in this country, but restricted chiefly to the object of religious improvement.

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As the society would naturally expect all its influence to be exerted through the medium of public opinion, an occasional pamphlet or other *publication*, as the progress of the society seemed to afford materials, would probably be of service, not only in disseminating information relative to the proceedings of the society, but in elevating and directing general sentiment on the subject of education, and in contributing to increase the interest now so extensively felt on this topic; while much would also be done to aid instructers by suggesting a wider range of thought on their professional employment, and furnishing them, to some extent, with higher qualifications for their important duties.

In stating some of the leading objects which seem to claim the attention of such a society as is proposed; it is by no means desired that any measure should be adopted or pursued with a precipitate zeal, or in any way inconsistently with the high responsibilities under which such a society must lie to the interests and the judgment of the community.

A sketch, merely, has been given of what a society might attempt, in whatever way, and at whatever time, shall seem most advisable. And the ideas which have now been offered will accomplish their chief objects, if they succeed in suggesting thoughts more adequate to the importance of such an undertaking.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

[Continued from page 31.]

Outline of Instruction, as conducted in Cheshire Primary School No. 1, Winter Term, 1826-7.

SYNOPSIS.

Education.

Moral. *General Principles.*	*Physical.* *General Principles.*	*Intellectual.* *General Principles.*
Affections.	Senses.	Observation.
Obedience.	Play-games.	Memory.
Truth.	Exercises.	Judgment.
Temper.		Method.
Approbation.		Abstraction.
Amusements.		Association.
Rewards and Punishments.		Invention.
Police.		Taste.
		Imagination.

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Instruments.	*Subjects.*	*Process.*
Class-Books.	Enunciation.	Classes.
Library.	Description.	Subjects of Study.
Periodical Publications.	Geometry.	Books.
Slates, Pencils, &c.	Reading,	Details.
School-Room.	Spelling.	Order of daily Instruction.
Apparatus.	Defining.	Scheme of daily Instruction.
	Writing.	
	Paraphrasis.	
	English Phraseology.	
	Composition.	
	Pronunciation.	
	Punctuation.	
	Arithmetic.	
	Geography.	
	Natural History.	
	Ethics.	

Moral Education.

'The only solid and true foundation of all morality is laid in the first relations of Instructer and Pupil.' *Pestalozzi.*

General Principles.

Elicit the affections, and direct them to their appropriate objects; to

The Instructer,
Associates,
Mankind,
Brutes,
The Creator.

Mild and conciliating measures only are to be used in the education of the affections and passions.

Reason and conscience carefully trained, and made the only objects of appeal.

Confidence in the instructer, induced by the affections, and by example, made the foundation of obedience.

Obedience made the basis of truth.

Approbation, founded on truth, and obedience.

Amusements—rewards and punishments—internal police, and process, made to exert a strictly *moral* influence.

Affections.

Employ the language of nature—attitude, gesture, countenance expressing joy, gladness, cheerfulness, satisfaction, contentment, complacency, approbation, love, with correspondent tones of voice—caressing.

Amusements adapted to the development of the affections.

Devotions.

Social inclinations furnished with proper objects.

Character of objects, surrounding children, attended to.

Anecdotes.

Dress, manners, habits.

Instructer acknowledge his faults frankly to scholars, as an example for their imitation.

Affections heightened by associated combination.

Desired emotions excited, by oratory, address, action, countenance.

Characteristical affections frequently exercised.

Address pupils familiarly on all occasions.

Mutual sympathy.

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Kindness, gentleness, candour.

Instructer evince an interest in amusements, employments, &c., of scholars, sometimes engaging in them himself.

No competition—never blaming one, while another is praised—the selfish sympathies of two or more, being never brought to desire the same object, at the same time.

Character of Rewards, and the manner of their distribution, considered.

Pupils made as happy as possible, by the address and arrangements of the instructer.

Selfish passions eradicated as much as possible.

No individual comparisons—equal, and exact, and public justice given to all.

Attainment, not *place*, made the standard of merit.

Influence of comparatively small things, considered.

Uniformity and consistency in the instructer—avoid caprice.

Obedience.

Induce the confidence of scholars, by affection and conduct, as the foundation for obedience.

Example—precept—practice, founded on reason.

Preventives, rather than punishments.

Few laws—those clearly defined, and rendered familiar by habitual practice.

Integrity, and honesty, without dissimulation, on the part of instructer.

Diminish temptations, by arrangement.

Self-government induced, by appealing to reason and conscience.

Peculiar tastes of children consulted, and guided.

Punishment, uniform, certain, immediate.

Association to induce obedience, in small children;

Reason to induce obedience, in larger.

Ridicule, and raillery, used for the cure of little misdemeanours and habits.

Natural consequences of obedience and disobedience, employed to encourage, or punish.

Punishments, private and solitary, to induce obedience.

Power of words over ideas, consulted in reproof.

Pleasant and constant employment necessary to ensure obedience.

Active cooperation of pupils in the desired pursuits, induced by measures adapted to the genius of the mind.

Be exact in requiring obedience.

Seldom command; urge to duty by the influence of the affections.

Apposite stories.

Truth.

Never require children to accuse themselves; ask them no questions, where it is for their interest to deceive.

Clear ideas of right and wrong fixed in the minds of children.

Honesty and integrity respected, commended, rewarded.

Confidence deserved before it is given.

Candour, encouraged, and rewarded by confidence.

Avoid presenting temptations, and dissimulation.

Fear banished; truth valued more than any pecuniary consideration.

Exact no promises from children.

Strengthen the mental powers.

Appeal to reason for the basis of truth.

Be uniform in punishments and rewards.

Love of confidence induced.

Example of instructer.

Pardon the *timid* until courage is induced.

Reason with the *sanguine* until their error is seen.

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Temper.

Induce the affections which form and sweeten the temper.
Never irritate intentionally.
Appeal to hope, and reason—not to fear.
Sympathy of surrounding persons.
Ludicrous circumstances suggested to allay anger; a story, &c.
When one passion is awake, excite its opposite to allay it.
False ideas of pleasure removed, and true ones presented.
Causes of anger ascertained, and controlled.
Be careful in awakening associations attending anger.

Approbation.

Train conscience, by frequent appeal to it.
Induce habitual obedience, as far as possible.
No personal emulation; general praise bestowed.
Beware of the counterfeits of approbation, pride and vanity—cultivate the judgment carefully.
Due degree, and kind of excitement given.
Affectionate approach, and attention, of instructer.
Pupils set a high value on the instructer's approbation.
Attention paid to surrounding objects.
Complacent regards.
Equality observed, as much as possible.
Correct ideas of right and wrong.
Pleasure of approbation induced.
Sympathy and selfcomplacency go hand in hand.

Amusements.

Controlled by the instructer.
Amusements *moralized* as much as possible, exercising a good influence on the affections and passions, improving and elevating the mind.
Adapted to the understandings, feelings, and habits of children.
Blended with study at suitable intervals.
Instructer mingle in them himself.

Exercises in school room under systematic control.
Evening recreations at the instructer's room, in which he engages himself, &c.
Story telling.
Evening reading schools, and amusements, at the school room.
Play games.

Rewards and Punishments.

Moralized, of an intellectual nature, addressed to the understanding and the feelings.

Rewards.	*Punishments.*
Self approbation.	Self condemnation.
Affection of Instructer.	Loss of Instructer's affection.
Success.	Defeat.
Consequences of obedience.	Consequences of disobedience.
Caressing.	Neglect.
Encouragement.	Ridicule; Raillery.
Self government.	Governed by the Instructer.
Proposed for imitation.	Contempt.
Hope; with attendants.	Fear; and its attendants.
Esteem; confidence; love.	Aversion; Jealousy.
Perusal of Library Books.	Wooden Books.
Knowledge; usefulness.	Ignorance; Beggary.
Happiness.	Misery; Despair.

Police.

Power emanating from the pupils; Instructer moralizing the public sentiment.

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Accuracy of language used by Instructer, in Illustrations, &c.
Associated attention.
Walks; notice of things with Instructer.
Interest taken in objects, &c.
Anecdotes, descriptions, &c.
Dictation.

Memory.

Rational, philosophical memory independent of particular words.
Pupils use their own language in Recitation.
Convey instruction through the medium of more than one sense.
Take nothing on trust; examine; compare, decide independently.
Frequent Reviewing.
Connexion between cause and effect; instruction philosophical.
Oral instruction; make things interesting.
Mechanical habits avoided; destroyed.
Analogy and resemblance properly used in aid of memory.
Arrangement; classification; combination; separation.
Memory and invention cultivated together.
Visible and tangible objects used in illustration.
Gain ideas independent of given words.
Explanation by, and to, the Instructer.
Memory exercised about things, as well as books, lessons, &c.
Order of time to aid recollection; association.
Synonymous Reading.

Judgment.

Present materials for comprehension.
Independence of decision; prejudices removed.
Discriminate between assigned things, actions, &c.
Analysis of similar objects.
Close observation.
Separate object of judgment from extraneous things.
Exercise the senses on visible, and tangible objects.
Examination; Reasoning; Deduction.
Employ common occurrences for materials of judgment.
Generalization; Synthesis; defining.
Indexes to books made by pupils.
Questioning.
Decisions on moral and judicial proceedings.

Method.

Care, and management of personal things.
Systematic practice in every thing.
Distribution.
Arrange material objects in reference to shape, colour, &c.
Keep Memorandum, Journal, &c.
Classify things, take catalogues, &c.

Abstraction.

Perform mental operations surrounded by noise.
Instructing employments.
Many operations going on simultaneously.

Association.

Avoid improper epithets.
Correct language and description.
Proper combinations of thought, and feeling, commended.

Invention.

Experimenting.
Fondness for voluntary labour induced.
Independence.

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Instructer observe play things, &c.
Vigorous mental action supported.
Close Observation.
Employ common things for materials.
Furnish materials, teach children to combine, separate, and compare.

Taste.

Simplicity of natural operations and objects.
Cultivation of the senses.
Works of art.
Arrangement of surrounding objects.
Well regulated associations.
Language of nature.
Pictures; Engravings; Gems; Medals.
Dress; Decorations.

Imagination.

Language of suggestion.
Observation.
Curiosities; Excursions; Walks.
Well written Romances; Vivid descriptions.
Analogies; Similitudes; Novelty.
Excitements.
Stories.
Imagination moralized.
Instruction given in an interesting shape.
Surrounding objects.
Cleanliness; neatness; dress; decoration.
Engravings; Gems; &c.
Reverie.
Dreams.

Instruments of Education.

Class Books:

Bible.
Worcester's Primer of the English Language.
Franklin Primer.
Fowle's Child's Arithmetic.
Fowle's National Guide to Reading and Orthography.
Sears' Spelling Book.
Willard's Geography for Beginners:
Reading Lessons for Primary Schools.
Leavitt's Easy Reading Lessons.
Lessons in simultaneous Spelling, Reading, and Defining.
Woodbridge's Rudiments of Geography.
Murray's English Reader.
Walker's Dictionary.
Woodbridge and Willard's Universal Geography.
Colburn's Intellectual Arithmetic.
Colburn's Sequel to Intellectual Arithmetic.
Russell's Grammar of Composition.
Fowle's Linear Drawing.
English Grammar, without a Book.

School Library.

This contains about 200 volumes of Books, suited to the taste and capacities of children; embracing nearly all of the most recent juvenile publications.

Periodical Publications.

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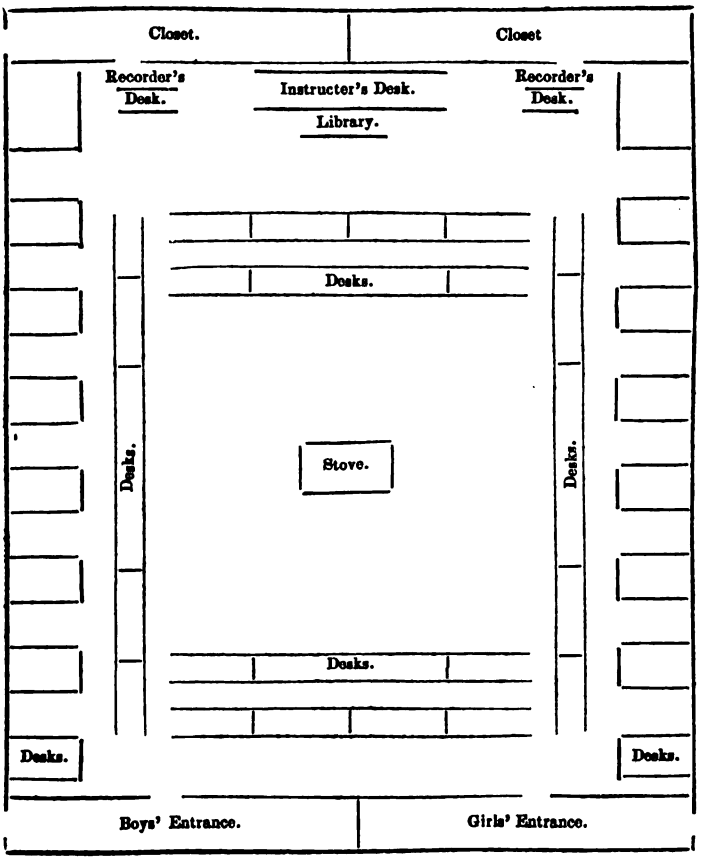

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INQUIRIES ON EDUCATION.—NO. II.

The question we wish to consider, is not, whether the time usually spent at school is well spent—for undoubtedly it is—but could it be better employed ? is the inquiry we wish to make.

Experience and observation induce us to believe, that these years, inestimable in their value, can be turned to a better account, than is usually made of them. Boys are sent to school, to be drilled into the same course of instruction, whatever be their future destination ; and the first ten or twelve years are spent in the mechanical process of regularly going to school, and performing a daily task—this is the boasted privilege of our country, and we wish to improve it ; not because much has been done in our common schools, that we should relax our exertions, but that we would render their influence more effectual, by making instruction better adapted to individual necessities and the demands of society.

In this time might be acquired such a stock of knowledge as would enable men, with practice, to fill almost any station, if their education were directed to this end.

A boy, destined for the common walks of society, seldom learns any thing at school, except reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar,—the last three constitute most of his juvenile education, and usually engross three fourths of his time. These are indispensable branches of education and should receive a proper attention, but the latter is exceedingly intricate ; and the propriety of teaching it to children, at an early age, has often been doubted—it is however evident, that it should not occupy much time, until the pupil is old enough to reflect upon its use ; and we have seen it taught practically with far more success than theoretically.

Our former subject of complaint again arises. A knowledge of grammar is estimated, by the number of times the grammar book has been recited, and the facility with which its rules may be applied, with very little understanding of the subject. We would not go so far as to say, the tongue should never be compelled to repeat what the ear does not comprehend, or the mind understand, for this would be impossible in the course of education now pursued ; and however plausible it is in theory, it is not feasible in practice. Much of early education must be inexplicable to children, and time and expense will unfold its utility to their understandings and discover to them its true value ; yet

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we would not bind down the energies of childhood, to the accomplishment of what is found to be a task for maturer years. Let the principles of grammar be well understood and practically applied, but not years be spent in dull plodding over this science, when circumstances demand the attention of the mind to other subjects. In the study of geography, too, much time is spent upon its less important parts, and much exertion is misapplied in committing the whole to memory, as it loads the mind with a useless burden seldom applicable in after life.

A sufficient knowledge of geography may be acquired in a short time, to constitute a correct idea of the different parts of the earth and their relative situations; and if it must be, let the general knowledge of this branch be deferred to a later period—let the estimation of different nations, manners, and customs, be acquired by general reading and reflection. Some very cogent reasons advocate this method of studying geography, particularly as it regards its civil, religious, and political departments. When the character of any nation is comprehended in one sentence, and committed to memory, it is obvious that the impressions conveyed to the child, cannot be just or enable the pupil to form a correct idea of such nations. This, together with a representation of some distinguished characteristic, is the opening vista through which the young mind views the world, and the mention of any particular nation, will call up these ideas to form the judgment which after years must correct, when these erroneous impressions are effaced, and he is enabled to think correctly.

These two studies occupy by far too much time in schools at present, to the entire exclusion of many other branches. The evil probably arises from attempting too much; in the former, from making it too mechanical, and in the latter, from committing to memory too much unimportant matter. Why the practice has been so long tolerated, of devoting such an undue portion of time to comparatively unimportant branches, and excluding almost all the practical arts and sciences from our common schools, we can hardly conceive. It is no wonder that so much indifference prevails upon this subject. Let any man ask himself how much of his education is subservient to practice; and reflect how much of it might have been, had it been properly directed: even the man of a licensed education will find the number of useful branches neglected, outnumber the useful ones pursued.

A neglect of these is not consonant with the spirit of the

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age, when such vast improvements are going forward in the scientific world. Common intercourse demands some knowledge upon subjects which occupy so large a share of human ingenuity, and by which individual character is so much estimated. It is true, that with most practical subjects after life makes us more or less acquainted, as chance throws us within the sphere of their operations, and inclination or interest prompts us to embrace them; and but an imperfect knowledge can be acquired in the time proposed for their study;—yet it should be remembered that the success of education depends upon its application in the discharge of duty, and what has stood the test of experience should not subject us to the labour of discovery or invention, from an ignorance of fundamental principles.—A knowledge of the rudiments of these sciences will open to the mind a new world; and, though limited in extent, it will be the means of enjoyment, and stimulate a desire to improve the opportunities which rise up to our acceptance in every walk of life.

The mind forms its habits of reflection upon whatever surrounds it; and in proportion as the store of information, applicable to its condition, is increased, so will be its perceptions and improvement. That knowledge is most valuable which can be carried into our daily intercourse, and be harmoniously blended with the business of life, so united as to 'grow with our growth,' and lend its influence to form the character.

Too little is learned at school which can be made to extend to after life, and affect our intercourse in society—hence the reason why most scholastic knowledge is soon forgotten. There is a wide chasm between theory and practice, which must be filled, to secure the object of education. Its practicability is not felt, its interest is lost, and the child views it as a task, rather than a source of enjoyment.

A school is society in miniature; and its influence should be so extended as to flow on through life. Time should not be spent in acquiring that knowledge which has only a nominal value; schools should become more the fountains of practical instruction; and the time now consumed in idleness, should be devoted to those branches which are brought immediately within the pale of active life. Teachers should not confine their instructions to their text book, but extend it to whatever shall probably affect the future situations of their pupils. We might, with as much propriety, chain the exertions of the whole community within the same narrow limits as confine juvenile instruction to the same beaten path:—human exertion is various, and should be

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variously directed. In every situation, the mind should be made to feel the necessity of what it is about to learn; and we are confident this may be done to a considerable degree, if nothing extraneous be brought to the work. Every one may be instructed by his experience, how much easier the mind learns any thing, when it is inflamed by its own desire, than when compelled to undergo the formal drudgery of acquiring what it cannot adapt to its own necessities. Our education should be incorporated with and form a part of our existence, and nothing should be ingrafted, whose fruit is not the wholesome food of life which will constitute a portion of our daily subsistence—not such as is merely ornamental or whose rank luxuriance absorbs the vital energies of the parent tree, and checks the growth of the other branches.

Nothing in education, as we have said, is valuable, unless it yield the important consideration, the growth of the mind, for which it was intended—it should never be considered a burden to be borne about for occasional use or exhibition.

Examples are not wanting of the greatest benefactors of mankind, who have become so by adapting their education to life in the various situations in which they were called to act. It was a practical education that enabled our Washington to discharge the important duties of his eventful life with so much success, bringing to his aid the active energies of his mind united with an extensive field of practice. His early life was not introduced to such a heterogeneous mass of ideas as now bursts upon the mental perception of school boys; he was permitted to form a just estimate of home, before he sent his ideas on adventure to other climes and other ages—his mind was unfolded amidst the simple beauties of nature and childhood, rather than doomed to be an exile for years upon the once classic shores of Greece and Rome, and compelled to imbibe the spirit of darkened ages, and a religion and philosophy, whose mists of error have fled before the sun of revelation and improvement. If there be any thing valuable in early education, it is to lay a foundation which will support the superstructure of future usefulness. It was a practical education which raised Franklin to that summit of philosophic eminence to which his exertions and talents so justly entitle him. His, too, was an education free from the clogs of modern instruction, simple by its adaptation and forcible by its practicability. His mental powers were developed to comprehend whatever should constitute its employment, not cramped by blind imitation of others' sentiments and

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opinions; but his greatness was an eminence of his own creation, grand and beautiful as it was original. By a practical education we would be understood to mean such a one as is strictly practical in the sphere in which the individual is destined to move. If possible, make an early decision upon the profession, and let the education be directed accordingly.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Books for Children.

The question is continually asked by parents of this reading generation,—What books are proper for children? And in all the multitudes that daily issue from the press, it is hard to make a selection of even a few which are entirely without objections.

Some of these objections it is our purpose to state, not without the hope that they will meet the eye and excite the attention of those who devote themselves to this species of writing, but chiefly to aid parents in the responsible office of selecting books for their children. It is not merely the gift of *imagination* which qualifies a writer to compose for children: it is exceedingly desirable that he take into consideration *all the faculties* of children, and address them as possessed of all. It is a great evil to make the imagination paramount, or the sensibility to the pathetic paramount; and equally undesirable to leave these entirely out of consideration. Providence addresses the whole mind: there is beauty in nature to cultivate the taste; there are touching circumstances in life to awaken the heart in tenderness; and, above all, there are innumerable objects to cultivate the desire of knowledge, with their laws of formation and their secret relations half developed, pleasing the mind and stimulating to an exertion of the reasoning powers.

In what we do for the cultivation of the young, we should beware of departing from those principles which accurate observation discovers to us in Providence. Were the child able to take into his observations a wide extent of Providential dealing there would be nothing for us to do. That he is not capable

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of this, imposes on us an obligation to create a miniature discipline about him; but '*The child is father of the man*,' and we are bound to study the subject deeply; and there is probably no stimulus so great as this to the investigation of the laws of Providence. Observation shows us that man is not sufficiently stimulated by the desire of his own happiness. While he enjoys, he feels no necessity of such investigation; when he suffers, the energy of his investigating and reasoning powers is enfeebled, and he is reckless and indifferent. But the social,—especially the parental,—sentiment impels us to study the designs of Providence, and give to our children all the benefits arising from its discipline. For if they enjoy, we do not feel, as in our own case, that enjoyment will last for ever, and we would obtain for them the principle of progressive happiness; and if they suffer, we cannot rest indifferent and reckless, as in our own case, but must needs seek the principle of consolation. These principles are to be found only in an attentive consideration of all which is comprehended in the word Providence; and it is by the test of this observation that we are to judge of children's books. They are exceedingly important in their influence; children's minds are tender and impressible; and a book has often been known to make an impression on the mind of a child so powerful that the milder lessons of nature in all succeeding time have been unable to restore the equilibrium.

We do not hesitate to press this matter for there is no danger of stating the subject too strongly. It is a subject of increasing importance. Modern improvements in education have made books come nearer to children's minds than ever before. They are taught the meaning of words more accurately; their faculties are stimulated by the interrogatory mode of imparting knowledge in oral instruction; and books are not given them as mere amusement, but, made companions of serious hours, and referred to as sources of instruction, are often made more intelligible and impressive by the practised voice of the mother, and, in fact, almost form the moral atmosphere in which the child moves.

One of the greatest dangers of books written for children by persons of talent, is that of exciting the sensibility too powerfully. Books intended to inculcate the duties of obedience to parents, kindness to companions, respect for the rights of equals, industry, modesty, teachableness, &c., are apt to abound in strong cases, and to deal in severe punishments. Now the neglect and violation of these duties by children proceeds from a thoughtlessness,

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which is indeed to be checked because it leads to heartless, selfish frivolity, but is not to be represented as involving such exciting events as are often made to follow. Mere reasoning, without any appeal to the feelings, will often be found quite adequate to produce a check on this thoughtlessness. There is a method of bringing reasoning upon these daily duties and private virtues before the mind in a way attractive to the attention, and even of making appeals to the sensibility without endangering the mind by powerful associations: it is the method pursued by Mrs. Trimmer, in her story of 'the Robins,' where a fabulous veil is thrown over the actors and sufferers, while the incidents and moral obligations and feelings are strictly human. No one who has witnessed the effect of this little book upon young children, will doubt that, in spite of all the striking improbabilities of a story of laughing, crying, and talking robins, children's sensibility is sufficiently excited. No parent would desire that a deeper sense of the reality of the circumstances, should lay hold of his child's mind.

A bee, an ant, or a beaver, endowed with free will, (as a child's imagination will easily be led to believe), may serve as mediums of moral instruction to children,—being members of a community; and a child's comprehension being able to take in the relations of the individuals to the whole, and its natural conscience instinctively attaching to these relations all the moral obligations.

Another difficulty is avoided by this species of heroes and heroines; and that is a reference to religious obligation in stories. There is a great deal of danger of injuring a child by forcing upon the mind a consideration of its highest relations in the small incidents of daily life, and on the other hand an equal danger of accustoming a child to speculate on the motives of human action without noticing these higher relations. The very first stages of religious instruction are too important and of too delicate a nature to be entrusted to a book, especially a book of amusement. Written words are cold expressions of those delicate and tender sentiments which we wish should mingle with the first development of the mind, and give a devotional cast to the whole being. There are indeed a thousand objections to putting religious instruction into those little books which are given to very young children. Words by rote about God, are the most effectual hindrances to real conceptions of Him; and images, which written words and figurative expressions are too apt to convey, remove Him to a distance, almost

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necessarily—besides alarming the imagination. When the *rationale* of the finite virtues is explained, then let the imagination be conversing with *finite* beings,—and the *immortals* not be brought into serious situations, until the mind of the little reader can go without danger on the long track of its immortal relations.

In proceeding to this second stage of children's books, an objection frequently made, occurs to us. It is this: that the stories anticipate the experience of children, in the nature of their incidents. They present situations in which children do not find themselves; they often intimate moral obligations which cannot be felt till mature age; and if all this is connected with any thing touching to the sensibility, the mind is excited and yet baffled by indistinct ideas, therefore craves it knows not what; and in its search after excitement, is too apt to fall upon dangerous matter. We would exonerate from this blame such books as 'Always Happy'—'A Visit to the Sea Side,' and many of the stories of the almost inimitable Berquin. But we apprehend that great improvement would result from there being no story at all in these little books; or but one incident, not a connected tissue of incidents. A conversation upon a natural object familiar to children in general, pointing out its form and obvious powers; touching upon its beauty, the connexion of this beauty with our happiness, and the goodness of the Creator in producing this connexion; and leading the mind to an investigation of hidden powers and relations, is a very interesting kind of reading to children: and a little book of this kind would store the memory and imagination with what is useful and beautiful, touch the heart to its finest issues, and exercise the reasoning powers quite as much as would be consistent with the object of a book not intended for absolute study.

When we speak of conversations we do not mean *conversations* in the style of the works of Mrs. Wakefield, (excellent in their own way,) but conversations as informal if not as sportive as those in the 'Visit to the Sea Side.'

Books of this kind would also be much more useful if accompanied by pictures. Could the natural object which is the subject of conversation be delineated accurately, it would be a great aid to the child. But it is very desirable that pictures should be accurate and beautiful. The art of lithography might be brought to conduce to the improvement of children, in this way. The beauty of this kind of delineation and the ease of multiplying copies, render it quite in the power of publishers to enrich little books without greatly adding to their expense.

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Another objection made to children's books strikes us as being well founded. This is the authors' not leaving children to make their own moral judgments, in regard to actors and actions. Children are dwarfed in their moral nature, as in their intellectual powers, by not having any thing to do—but by being *told* of what they might themselves attain. This head of the subject deserves a longer notice than we can now give.

There is another difficulty in regard to children's books, which we must advert to, though indeed the authors are not responsible for it. It is this. Sufficient discrimination is not used by the guardians of children in selecting the books as adapted to their particular ages. This is a matter of great importance, and there is such a diversity in the times of the development of children's minds, that it is impossible for the author to point out the age. The parent must do it himself. There is a little book lately published, 'My Early Days,' exquisitely touching, and conveying important truth in a most powerful delineation of moral retribution in this world. But part of this book is improper for young children. It is quite impossible for a child to understand it; while it is unavoidable that it would produce a strong effect upon the imagination and sensibility, by its principal incident. We have heard of many instances in which this book has been given to children; and a very general impression is abroad that it was intended for them. We would recommend it to the young collegian for instruction, and even to maturer age as a most interesting work—but would repeat that it is not, throughout, the book for children.

VARIATIONS IN ORTHOGRAPHY.

Uniformity of spelling in all words, has always been regarded by theorists as a very desirable thing; and within the last fifty years, particularly, there have been repeated attempts on the part of men of various attainments and celebrity in literature, to fix and settle the vagrant orthography of the English language. The success of all these attempts, however, is hardly perceptible on the pages of the great mass of publications, which the press of our day is constantly throwing off. For there are not only many simple words, in the orthography of which few writers

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seem to agree, but whole classes of words, about which authors, 'compositors,' and 'foremen,' seem all to make it a point of honour to maintain a personal opinion. Whether this discrepance is so serious a disadvantage as it is sometimes held to be, or whether it is one of the necessary evils of progression, we cannot take upon us to decide. Our present object is merely to point out a few prominent facts, with a view chiefly to the assistance of teachers, and of such especially as happen to make use of school books entirely at variance among themselves in this department, and who find 'old standards' and 'modern improvements' in orthography baffling all their efforts to come to satisfactory conclusions, or to adhere to a decent uniformity of regulation. We have thought, too, that this would be a convenient opportunity for dropping a word of explanation about the course pursued in the orthography of our own publication, which, as some of our readers have no doubt observed, is different from what it was in the first two volumes of the work; and as this topic is capable of being much more briefly discussed than the general subject on which we have set out, it may not be unadvisable to dispose of it first.

After a few unsuccessful attempts at a uniform method, embracing what seemed to be the leading improvements of the press in this country and in England,—and after a sufficient experience of the difficulty of maintaining uniformity among 'compositors' accustomed to spell differently from one another, the North American Review, as a work deservedly at the head of American literature, was given as a standard in almost all variable words. On a more careful examination, however, the Review itself was found not uniform—of this fact we do not complain; for to be dissatisfied with it, would merely be to be dissatisfied with the unsettled orthography of the English language. Still, in this condition of matters it was found impossible to be consistent, without a particular system for the regulation of our own work.

Such a system we have found it necessary, therefore, to adopt; and it may be explained in very few words. *Usage*, we think, *is the rule of good taste in orthography*, as well as in every other department of language; and the usage to which we wish to adhere, is *the average* (as far as we can determine) *of existing practice in reputable works*. This average, it is possible, we may sometimes miss; and in the thousands of words that make up a monthly No., one or two may escape notice. But our endeavour will always be to keep the standard we have mentioned;

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since we regard it as the only one which is natural—as one which, in fact, the necessity of the case demands, and in spite of all individual remonstrances, actually prevails, for proof of which, the literary progress and history of most languages may be safely adduced.

Our intention, therefore, is, briefly, to avoid peculiarities, whether obsolete or novel, and to fall in with the current of good custom, as far as we can trace it. This principle we will now proceed to apply to a few words which are obviously variable; but which admit, we think, of the application of a rule derived from the preponderance of good practice.

Words ending with *ck* or *c* may be first adverted to, as an important class of those in which the prevailing orthography of our day differs from that of former times. The extent of the change seems to be this: in words of more than one syllable the addition of *k* is become obsolete; thus, in the vast majority of publications at present issuing from the press, *public*, *heroic*, &c., are spelled without a final *k*.

For the correctness of this statement the appeal is easily made to actual observation. There are, as far as we know, but two exceptions to this usage,—the spelling of elderly persons, every where, who decline keeping up with the variations in custom; and in this country, a practice, confined chiefly to the presses of the city of Boston, and founded on the idea of a standard taken from classical authors of the last century, or from Johnson's Dictionary. The error in this case, (for we regard it as such,) is forming a rule from the usage of past times, instead of drawing it from that of our own.

Many plausible objections, we are aware, can be offered against dropping the final *k* in the words to which we have alluded. But in all the details of language, existing custom and not logic must be left to prescribe rules; and a well disciplined taste should perceive as much impropriety in adopting the spelling of the last century, as in conforming to any of its obsolete fashions in dress. Much, we know, is said of the danger of changes. Still, the orthography of every successive century of English literature, is, in many words, but an exhibition of changes; notwithstanding which, no serious evil has followed. Nor probably will any fatal result ever take place, from leaving literature and language and the human mind to take care of themselves. In the commonwealth of letters there should not, and indeed there cannot be any restraint, but that prescribed by good sense and personal opinion, which if not tramelled with rules, will nat-

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urally furnish a standard sufficiently extensive and permanent for all good purposes.

The next class of words to which we would at present advert, is that in which the termination is variously spelled *our* or *or*. On this point there is a difference as regards general use in this country and in England. In the United States, the spelling of such words as *favour*, *honour*, *labour*, without *u*, is much more prevalent comparatively than in England, where, as yet, this mode is but an innovation—a thing suggested and introduced as an improvement, but certainly not yet generally adopted. For the correctness of this opinion we refer to the actual state of the press. The words *error*, *horror*, *terror*, *inferior*, *superior*, and several others, seem to be acknowledged as a separate class. Adhering, therefore, to present usage as a rule, we must be content to see hon*our* and err*or* occurring perhaps in the same line—leaving the responsibility not with a rule, a grammar, or a dictionary, but with the acknowledged fact of common consent.

Whether usage, in this country, is not sufficiently general to authorize the orthography of *honor*, *labor*, &c., we cannot presume to decide, without a fuller local knowledge of facts than we now possess. Independently, however, of a doubt of its propriety even here, the argument for conformity to England in this point and all others which concern our common language, is, we think, a strong one. Needless variations are an evil to be deprecated, where so many advantages connected with literature and science, not to speak of other things, are dependent on uniformity.

Another important class of words consists of those which terminate in *ize* as *civilize*, &c. The difference which present use prescribes in single words, is very arbitrary in this case; thus, we are required to spell *criticise* with *s*, but *civilize* with *z*. Uniformity in this class of words is certainly a desirable thing. But the attempt to secure it produces, we think, the effect of innovation—it is obviously a departure from prevailing usage—the exception rather than the rule.

Polysyllables accented on the first syllable, and ending with a consonant preceding *ed*, are somewhat analogous; *bigoted* and *riveted*, (if not *benefited*,) are more generally spelled without the double *t*; while *counselled*, *worshipped*, *travelled*, retain the double consonant.

The same remarks, nearly, may apply to the words *judgement*, *abridgement*, *acknowledgement*, &c. In point of orthoepy, the

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e in these words is essential to their true pronunciation; and were the question whether we should throw out that letter or retain it, the decision would doubtless be in favour of the letter's keeping its place. But this is not a question of orthoepy: it is one of orthography; and the case is already foreclosed by use and custom, which give *judgment*, &c. as the true spelling.

There are, we admit, strenuous efforts now making, both here and in England, to call back the letter *e* in the words mentioned. But these efforts are evidently made against the current, and in point of taste and propriety must fall under the denomination of deviations, rather than of precedents.

Our present limits will not admit of farther discussion or of minute detail on this subject. It is one of considerable importance to literature; it concerns, too, the actual instruction of every school; and our readers will not, we trust, be reluctant to return to it, when opportunity may offer for a more extensive and exact investigation, along with a fuller list of words in in which the orthography of different publications and presses is at variance.

REVIEWS.

Elements of Greek Grammar. By Chauncey A. Goodrich. *Used in Yale College. Fourth Edition, Enlarged and Improved.* Hartford. O. D. Cooke, & Co. 1827. 12mo. pp. 247.

The continued use of this grammar in Yale College, would argue that a practical manual, compiled for the daily purposes of the teacher and the student, is, in that institution, preferred to a more copious work, which would afford, perhaps, greater scope for reference in later stages of application. Nor does this preference seem an injudicious one. It is a course, probably, the best adapted to the circumstances of the great majority of American students, whose object is not, and, for some time, at least, cannot be, an extensive course of Greek reading, but good instruction and good discipline, on a comparatively limited number of authors.

That the study of Greek ought to stop here, we are far from thinking. To be valuable as a means of mental improvement,

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it should be carried on as a recreation amidst the more laborious application of professional studies and professional life; and good Greek scholars must be comparatively rare among us, till the devotion of mature minds and personal taste, is brought more extensively into the department of ancient literature. That a result so propitious to learning will become more general among educated men, we have no doubt.

In all our seminaries, whether collegiate or preparatory, instruction in the Greek language, has within a few years, become much more exact, and much more extensive than formerly. The spirit of Grecian literature is distinctly felt, as one of the impulses to improvement. The more advanced classes of students seem to enter with more intelligence and with more of a genuine pleasure into this department of their studies; and teachers, in all orders of seminaries, are becoming more interested, and consequently more successful, in this branch of instruction.

The great and perceptible improvement of which we are speaking, has of late been much accelerated by the attention so generally paid to the German language, and to German writers on the science of grammar. Among the many good fruits of an acquaintance with the writers of Germany, and as a valuable means of improvement in education, Buttmann's Greek Grammar, translated by Mr. Everett, is, we trust, familiar to every instructer in this country, who teaches the Greek language.

At the time when the translation of Buttmann appeared, we thought, in common with many, that a work so ample and so minute—one which had received the sanction of the German seminaries—would, if introduced among us, exert a highly favourable influence on Greek studies, both in schools and in colleges. A more attentive consideration has, we confess, changed this opinion. The brief course of Greek, prescribed at our seminaries, hardly requires, perhaps, so full a work on grammar as that of Buttmann; and the attempt to learn the whole book is found excessively laborious; nor indeed, does this attempt prove ultimately successful, where there is such a multiplicity of details to be remembered. In these circumstances, a selection made by the teacher, would, no doubt, obviate every difficulty. But the judgment and the reading indispensable to a right selection, are by no means of an ordinary degree; and when we advert to the youth and inexperience not to speak of the limited reading of most of our teachers of Greek, we need not be surprised that such a method should fail, and that in some

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instances in which the grammar of Buttmann has been tried, boys are found less thoroughly prepared, than where the teachers adhere to a book which is much more compendious, but in the use of which the whole or nearly the whole volume is committed to memory. An additional disadvantage, sometimes, is to be encountered in schools where Buttmann's Grammar is used. Through the remissness of parents or teachers the scholars continue to use the New Testament and the Græca Minora of Dalzell, as the books to which they are to apply the principles and rules acquired from the study of Buttmann; and as this work was not prepared with reference to these class books, the scholar finds himself embarrassed, and his grammar in some instances inapplicable or insufficient. Besides which, the matter which he has treasured up in his memory, from the study of the grammar, is too seldom brought into use by apposite cases making a demand for it; and much of what he has actually learned, and learned well, perhaps, soon slips from his memory.

All that we have now said, it will be observed, applies not to defectiveness in the work of which we have been speaking, but to mistakes and imperfection in the use of it, which were anticipated and duly pointed out in the translator's own preface. The book itself is invaluable to the more advanced students at college, and to all who are engaged in the business of teaching. As a work for reference and personal use, it will long, we trust, be associated with the name of its translator, whose services to Greek literature rank him among the benefactors of his country.

That there is still room, however, for a suitable Greek Grammar for schools, is, we believe, obvious to all who attentively observe the actual condition of our preparatory seminaries. How far the work of Professor Goodrich will realize such an object, experiment can best determine; but we feel free to speak of this book, after considerable experience in the use of it, as well as of the Gloucester and the Eton Greek Grammars, and that of Valpy. We have found it better adapted than any one of these *singly*, to the course of Greek usually pursued in schools and colleges in this country. We would not prescribe our own experience as a guide to other teachers. But we think it due to the compilation of Professor Goodrich to intimate that our opinion of it was not formed theoretically or at random. Students and teachers, who have not made use of this work, we would refer to the unusually full and satisfactory view of 'voice,' 'mood,' and 'tense,' for proof that the book is not compiled merely as a convenient compend; and the completeness of

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the syntax will be found a great aid to the thorough instruction of young scholars. In the last mentioned department as well as in the scheme of inflection, the author corresponds, as far as analogy will permit, to the arrangement of Latin grammar, and in particular to the work of Dr. Adam, so generally used in our classical schools. In the order in which instruction is now given,—that is to say, commencing with Latin,—this course will facilitate the progress of pupils, and connect more pleasure than is otherwise wont to be felt, with their application to Greek; though for an idiomatic and exact knowledge of both languages, the order of study, ought, perhaps, as was once mentioned before, to be inverted.*

Our present limits will not admit of free references to the work itself. We must content ourselves with transcribing the prefatory advertisement.

'The materials for the first edition of this work, were derived chiefly from the Grammar of Hachenberg. Numerous additions were made, however, from other sources, and the plan entirely new modelled, in conformity to the existing modes of instruction in this country. In its progress through three editions, it has received accessions of valuable matter from the later German Grammarians; and, in the present edition, the articles on the Middle Voice, Tenses, Moods, the construction of the Infinitive and of Participles, and General Principles of Government, have been rewritten and enlarged; the Paradigms of the Irregular Verbs in μι, have been made more complete; a new article has been added on the Particles, and difficult forms of construction; the Accents have been introduced, and fuller rules given for Oxytones and Paroxytones, than are ordinarily to be met with, in works of this kind. By these successive changes, the work has lost its original character of a compilation from Hachenberg, and the name of that author, therefore, appears no longer on the title page.

'The plan of Adam's Latin Grammar has been followed, as far as the nature of the case would admit. The leading principles of Etymology and Syntax, designed to be committed to memory, are printed in a larger type. Remarks and exceptions follow, under each head, in a smaller character. Those rules of Syntax, which are common to the Latin and Greek languages, are, in most cases, stated in the exact terms of Adam's Grammar, as being already familiar to the learner.

'In a system of rules and annotations adapted to the capacity of the younger class of students, it would be out of place to enter into the theory of the language, or to trace the nice shades of distinc-

* See vol. I. p. 300.

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tion in the forms of construction. An attempt has been made, however, to guide the inquiries of more advanced students on these subjects, in the introductory articles on the Middle Voice, Tenses, Moods, construction of the Infinitive and of Participles, and General Principles of Government. Within a narrow compass are here given the principal conclusions, at which Matthiæ has arrived, in several hundred pages of his larger Grammar; though, of course, with the omission of uncommon forms of construction, and with that imperfection of statement, which must necessarily attend every attempt to compress so great a mass of matter, within such limits. In accordance with the same plan, the abstract of Middleton's Treatise on the Article, which was placed under the head of Syntax in the first edition, is retained in the Appendix. It has been hoped, that Instructers would find, in the general views of the language thus presented, important principles, which may be illustrated and explained from time to time, with great advantage to the pupil.

'To the larger Grammar of Matthiæ, the author is indebted for most of the improvements made in this work. When Buttmann has been consulted, the eighth Berlin edition printed in 1818, has been used. The article on Dialects was taken, with but little alteration, from the Gloucester Grammar; the list of Anomalous Verbs was formed, with additions and corrections, on that of Valpy; and a late Grammar of Ewing, has furnished a part of the remarks on Prosody. A considerable number of typographical errors have been detected in the two preceding editions, which were printed at a distance from the author, and beyond the reach of his inspection. The present edition, it is hoped, will be found more correct.

'As to occasional errors in the accents, he is confident of indulgence from those at least, who have been taught by experience, the difficulty of securing entire accuracy in this respect, with workmen not regularly educated to their use.'

We would leave this work with our readers, as the best that we have yet seen for the actual purposes of instruction in preparatory schools. A few books of Xenophon, prepared with copious references to this grammar, would, we think, be of more service to pupils and teachers, than the best volume of selections that it would be possible to compile.

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Strictures on a Review of Histories of the United States, for Schools.

[It is with much gratification that we have to acknowledge so early, a compliance with our request that parents and teachers who differ from any contributor to our pages, would favour us with an expression of their sentiments. Temperate discussion will, we think, prove as valuable on education as on any other subject.]

In the 23d and 24th numbers of the Journal of Education, is a review of Grimshaw's, Hale's, and Goodrich's, Histories of the United States. The writer has furnished many valuable hints upon the philosophy of juvenile education, and has very justly urged the importance of oral lectures, as a method of instructing youth in history. Every person has found in his own experience, that an anecdote, which he has read and forgotten a dozen times, has often been riveted for ever in his memory by being once heard from the living voice of a narrator.

While we thus far concur in the general observations of the reviewer, we think that some of his practical remarks are liable to exceptions. In the larger towns it is a feasible project to have schools where history, and other branches of knowledge, may be taught by oral lectures; but with respect to common schools, the most important in our opinion, and embracing a vastly larger number of pupils than all others, an attempt to introduce oral lectures, would at present be both abortive and mischievous. When, indeed, society is roused to a sense of the supreme importance of education, we may hope to see all classes willing to make the necessary sacrifices to secure to their offspring the best possible means of instruction. But until this sense is created, and the public mind is properly enlightened, innovations which come attended with greatly increased expense, will be resisted, prejudice will be excited, and the cause of education be hindered rather than promoted.

While we look, therefore, with approbation upon every attempt to communicate more enlightened views, we would express the hope that those who feel warmly and in the abstract think justly, would consider the slow progress of real improvement, and, with patience and condescension, adapt their efforts to the actual state of things.

The remarks of the reviewer upon the three school histories which stand at the head of his article, appear to us in several

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respects objectionable. We believe cheap and brief compends of American history to be important, for the simple reason that if these are not used—none will be used, except in a very few schools. Strike out of existence these three little books, upon which the reviewer has laid his hand so heavily; and thousands of pupils who annually obtain a very good knowledge of our history, would know little or nothing of it. If the history of the United States were only to be found in octavo volumes, it would be excluded from nineteen twentieths of our seminaries. It will be long before Robertson's History, in two volumes octavo, Botta's History of the Revolution, in two volumes, octavo and we know not how many more to complete the course, will be introduced into the common schools in the United States.

With respect to the particular characteristics of the works in question, we need, perhaps, say but little. The first page of Grimshaw's work sufficiently evinces that it was not intended for, and is not adapted to the juvenile mind. It is written only for persons already instructed in general history, and could be useful to no others. To pupils who are yet to receive their first ideas of history it would of course be a sealed book.

Mr. Hale's work is a very correct performance; but it seems to us rather designed as a text book, which the teacher is to expound and amplify, than a work which the pupil is *himself* to understand, and from which he is to gain those thoughts, images, and feelings, which catch the attention and captivate the mind of youth.

With respect to Mr. Goodrich's history, the reviewer has fallen into mistakes and misapprehension which, we trust, are accidental. It was *not* the first of these histories published—Grimshaw's was the first. After the publication of Goodrich's history, Grimshaw's was remodelled; and as Mr. Goodrich had given general views of the Aborigines, the progress of manners, religion, &c., &c., these topics were introduced into Grimshaw's new edition, and for the first time set forth in the title page. It was subsequent to this that these subjects were mentioned in the title page of Mr. Goodrich's work. This explanation will show that the remarks of the reviewer on this point are out of place.

With respect to the *plan* of Mr. Goodrich's history, we will only say, that it has been recently adopted with little variation in treating of English history; and the work (Rev. John Adams') is one of the most popular compends in use in England.

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When the reviewer made the brevity of Mr. Goodrich's History a point of demerit, he should have recollected that though compressed into a small compass, it actually contains about the same quantity of matter as the histories of Hale and Grimshaw, and much more than many octavos of 500 pages each. To those who have a predilection for bulky books, its size will no doubt be an objection. But it is the compactness of the volume which enables the publisher to afford it at a low price; and it is this low price, in part at least, which has caused the history of the United States to become a regular study in hundreds of schools, where before it was unknown. If any other circumstance is necessary to explain the fact that it has run through more than twenty editions, it may be found in its better adaptation to the real wants and actual state of our schools than the other works.

Experience on subjects of this sort is better than theory; the following opinion therefore which we copy from Mr. Emerson's prospectus of the Weathersfield Female Seminary, as it proceeds from one of the most experienced teachers of youth in New England, will be sufficient to correct the reviewer on this subject.

'By using it' (Mr. Goodrich's History) 'the last season, the high opinion which I had formed of its worth was confirmed and raised. The author is uncommonly happy, in his arrangement of facts; in presenting a simple, concise, and luminous view of a subject, which is in its nature peculiarly complex and intricate; in dividing the whole time into eleven periods; in tracing causes and effects; in publishing the principal and subordinate parts of the work in types of different sizes; and in presenting reflections for the benefit of the youthful mind. The style is easy, neat, remarkably perspicuous, and suited to improve the taste of the learner. On these accounts, this little compend appears peculiarly adapted to the use of schools.'

'An abridgment of the history of our own country,' says the reviewer, 'we think a very absurd thing.' To us this sounds very strange. The field of American history is much narrower than that of England; and yet we believe more than 100,000 copies of compends of English history, more concise than the one in question, are annually sold in England, and more, far more useful and practical knowledge in the aggregate is imparted by them than by all the octavos, quartos, and folios of English history put together. Besides, why is a compend of *history* alone absurd? We have compends of all other subjects of human

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knowledge; and it is by the use of them that instruction is so widely diffused over the community. Banish these despised compends; and you carry the world back to an age when science and knowledge are locked up in the library of the professed scholar.

INTELLIGENCE.

NEW-HAVEN GYMNASIUM.

'*Prospectus of the New-Haven Gymnasium; a School for the Education of Boys, to be established at New-Haven, Conn.; by* SERENO E. DWIGHT and HENRY E. DWIGHT.

WE propose in the ensuing spring, to establish, at New-Haven, a school for the education of boys; and have engaged the large and commodious building, originally intended as a steam-boat hotel, with the adjacent grounds. The house is one mile from the college, and three fourths of a mile from the centre of the town; and commands a fine view of the New-Haven valley, and the surrounding mountains, of the harbour, the Sound, and Long Island.

New-Haven, as a place of moderate size and great salubrity, as distinguished for the beauty of its site and environs, the neatness of its buildings and grounds, and the richness of its foliage, and as presenting a state of society in a high degree moral, enlightened, and polished, is a favoured seat of education. It is within eight hours travel from New-York, and within less than twenty-four from Boston, and Albany, and Philadelphia, and has a direct communication with every part of the United States.

The proposed institution, in its general plan, is intended to resemble the Round Hill School, at Northampton; the proprietors of which, for having introduced the *Gymnasium* into this country with so much talent and success, deserve the thanks of the friends of literature; as they do ours also, for the frankness and cordiality with which they have seconded our design.

We propose, with the boys, to occupy the house as a family, to take the entire charge of them, and to stand in the place of their parents. The government of the institution will be at once strict and parental. The boys, unless on special occasions, will not be allowed to leave the grounds, except in company with a teacher or guardian. They will be permitted to contract no debt, and to make no purchases for themselves. It is intended to have them always, in effect, under our own eye, and to fill up their time with study and useful recreation.

Wishing to form the character from an early period, and not to be responsible for habits and a character formed elsewhere, we propose to receive boys of the age of *six*, and to decline (unless in peculiar cases) commencing with any after the age of *fourteen*.

A part of each day is to be regularly devoted to Gymnastic exercises. These, with other active employments, are the best means of preserving the health, and invigorating the constitution. Assiduous attention will be paid to the subject of manners.

As some boys are designed for college, and others are not, the course of education will be accommodated, in each case, to the wishes of the parent. Both classes of boys will need instruction in Spelling, Reading, Writing, and

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Drawing, in Declamation, and Composition, in Arithmetic, and Algebra. Geography, with the aid of the best books, of maps, charts, and globes, is to be pursued as an object of prime importance. Both will also study French, Spanish, German, and Italian under *native* teachers: and for this end measures have been taken to procure the assistance of gentlemen of acknowledged talents and character.

The boys preparing for college will likewise be taught Latin, and Greek, with the elements of History, and where it is wished, the Hebrew.

The boys not intended for college will, in addition to the above, be taught Latin if the parents consent, English Grammar, Rhetoric, and as extensive a course of Mathematics as is desired. They will have the opportunity to receive a regular course of instruction in Botany, History, Logic, Ethics, Mental Philosophy, and Political Economy. It is expected also, that, those students, who have been sufficiently long in a course of education, and have made the requisite attainments, will be permitted to attend the course of Lectures on Chemistry, Mineralogy, and Geology, by Professor SILLIMAN; and the course on Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, by Professor OLMSTED.

The religious instruction of the pupils will be parental. The great aim will be to train them up in the fear of God. Each day will begin and end with reading the scriptures and prayer. The Bible will be a class-book on the sabbath; and the pupils will attend church at the place designated by their parents.

This is our general plan: we shall aim to execute it with fidelity; reserving, however, the right of making such alterations as experience shall show to be necessary. With the subject of education, we are not wholly unacquainted. One of us has been occupied for a considerable period, in a course of collegiate instruction. Both of us have had the privilege of surveying many of the principal seminaries of Europe; and one of us, during a long residence in Germany has examined, with the utmost attention and care, the system of education pursued in several of her Universities, and in her Academic and Commercial Gymnasia.

There will be two vacations in the year, each of three weeks; the first to commence on the first Wednesday of May; the other on the second Wednesday of September. During both, the boys may remain at school without additional expense.

We shall have a valuable library of the best authors in English, Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, Italian, and German.

The annual charge for boys of ten years and over is three hundred dollars; but a deduction will be made where two or more come from one family, at the same time. The charge for boys under ten is two hundred and fifty dollars. In this sum are comprized all charges for instruction, including the tickets for the college lectures, board, washing, and mending, room, fuel, lights, and furniture, except a bed or mattress, and bed-clothing, to be furnished by the pupil. These may be procured on the spot, at a fair price. Where it is wished, the clothing of the boys can be procured by us, and on terms advantageous to the parent.

It is intended to open the institution on the 1st of May, 1828.'

SERENO E. DWIGHT,
New-Haven, Nov. 28, 1827. HENRY E. DWIGHT.

'The great importance of this undertaking, its close connexion with the interests of learning, the high standing and eminent qualifications of the gentlemen concerned, the happy location, the ample accommodations of the buildings, and the deep interest of the community in the success of the enterprize, have induced us to insert, not a mere notice, but the entire prospectus of the institution.'—*American Journal of Science.*

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

From Johnston's work mentioned at the commencement of this No.

France, with a population of thirty millions of souls, affords an extensive field for the operations of an enlightened government; but, at the same time, were the elementary instruction entirely in the hands of the government, and wholly dependent on it, this great population would render it a matter of infinite difficulty, nay of impossibility, to create a system that would administer sufficiently or adequately to the moral wants of the great body of the people. But the French government has not attempted this. It has adopted a plan which, while it prevents abuse, does not interfere with the endeavours of individuals to promote the great object of an enlightened benevolence. The Primary Schools, in each district of the kingdom, are placed under the charge of a committee, the nature of which has been already described. These committees again are subject to the jurisdiction of the University, and, as much of the benefit to be derived from the progress of instruction must depend upon the choice of the members composing them, several *ordonnances* have been published, by superior authority, setting forth the extent of the duties expected from them, and advising "that the members should be enlightened men, disposed to examine, with impartiality and without bias, all projects of amelioration, and all new methods of education, before rejecting them."

The Primary Schools of France may be divided in different ways, according to the point of view in which they are considered. They may be divided into schools of the first, second, or third order, according to the degree of extension or perfection to which instruction is carried; they may be divided into those kept by individuals and those kept by associations, and particularly by the brotherhood of charity; they may also be divided according to the system of teaching adopted in them, and, lastly, into gratis and paying schools.

In the following table is given a statement of the numbers of the University of France, including all the Primary Schools, for the year 1815, and certainly, considering the extent of the kingdom, it does not give a very high idea of the condition in which the public instruction then was:—

Academies,		26	Students of Law,	2113
Faculties of Theology,	7	52	Do. of Medicine,	4216
Do. of Law,	9		In Royal Colleges,	9000
Do. of Medicine,	8		Other Colleges,	28,000
Do. of Sciences,	10		Ecclesiastical Schools,	5233
Do. of Letters,	23		In *pensions*,	39,623
Royal Colleges,		36	In Pr. Schools,	737,369
Colleges,		368		
Secondary Ecclesiastical Schools,		41	Total of Scholars,	825,554*
Institutions and *pensions*,		1255		
Primary Schools,		22,348		
Total of Establishments,		24,126		

But since this period a rapid increase in the number of schools and scholars has taken place. In 1815 France was but awakening from a state of things that did not permit instruction to extend its full influence. A heavy conscription had drained off the young men almost before they had time to be educated; and a complete military system of government was not likely to give great encour-

* Coup d'œil general sur l'education, et l'instruction publiques en France, &c. par M. Basset *Censeur des Etudes au College Royal de Charlemagne.*

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agement to societies, whose sole object was the promotion of knowledge. From a rapid succession of great and wonderful events, the minds of men had been kept in a state of ferment that was never allowed to subside, till at last, a general peace having arrived, the necessity and advantages of education became more apparent from the surplus of inhabitants, who were thrown upon their country by the want of military employment. Already, in the year 1820, the progress of instruction was manifest. It has been seen that in 1815 the number of scholars in the Primary Schools was 737,369; in 1820 it amounted to 1,070,500, being an increase of 333,131 in the short space of six years.

There is little fear of public education not improving, when the head of public instruction is heard to pronounce such words as these:—'There is an instruction necessary to all men; it consists of the elements of religion and morality, of the arts of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The present state of existence is one that can be neither happy nor well regulated, except when this knowledge is possessed by man.' It is to be hoped that future Grand Masters may think and speak in the same spirit, and then there will be little to dread.

By documents published in 1819, the population of France was averaged at 29,217,465, and that portion of it attending schools, at 1,130,00, being pretty nearly in the ratio of one to twenty five. Since then, however, up to the present day, the proportion has been gradually increasing, and may now be stated as very considerably higher.

A very great number of the schools for elementary instruction in France have been and still are under the direction and charge of the brotherhood and sisterhood of charity,—an association that demands from all the warmest admiration for the devotedness and usefulness of its members in advancing the work of benevolence; but the very nature of its institutions prevented these schools from being distributed equally over the country, and consequently rendered them less generally useful than could have been wished.

It almost always happened that they were found abundantly in towns, but very seldom in villages, hamlets, and retired parts of the country, where charity schools were most needed. This arose very much, as already said, from the nature of the institutions themselves; but it was also, in a great measure, owing to the expense of maintaing them. The scholars, no doubt, were admitted gratis; but their ordinary current expenses came upon the municipal revenues, and as these expenses were often considerable, an expenditure was unavoidably incurred, which a town of some size alone could afford. It has been found, however, that the system of mutual instruction of late years introduced into France, and which has been making such rapid progress, does not possess these disadvantages, or does so at least in a very slight degree. Schools upon this principle, it is said, may be established any where: they require a very trifling expense, and have an additional superiority over the charity schools, in developing more readily the moral qualities of the mind, and communicating with more ease and rapidity the elements of knowledge to all classes and all ages.* There is no doubt that a great share of the good done of late years, in the education of the poor, has arisen from the introduction of the system of mutual instruction. It is a system that has advanced with the most rapid progress in every department of France, where it has gained ground, though in some it has done so to a greater extent than in others. The society of ele-

* The system of mutual instruction here spoken of is but a modification of that so well known in this country as the system of Bell and Lancaster. It is, however, in reality, perhaps of earlier date than these gentlemen; for, according to French authority it appears to have been introduced into the Hospice of *La Pitie* by M. Herbault, as early as 1747, and to have been afterwards adopted by some other Frenchmen in various charitable establishments. The progress of this system in England at first was very rapid, but after reaching a certain length it became very stationary. Still, though not adopted to the full extent proposed by its authors, it has produced a considerable change in the mode of teaching. In France its advantages seem to be appreciated, and perhaps the principal of these advantages may be the facility with which it can be applied, and the small expense it entails upon the community.

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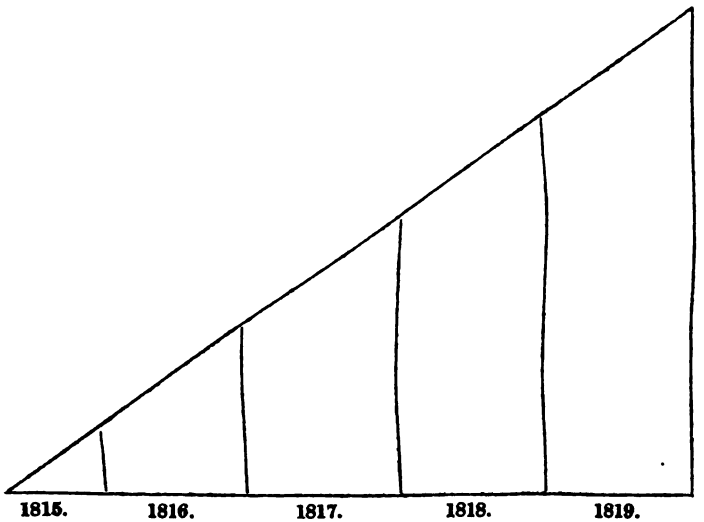
mentary instruction, whose labours in establishing a system of primary education throughout the kingdom have been so great and so successful, has always laid much stress on the advantages and superiority of this method, and, considering all the society has done for the benefit of mankind, it is certainly entitled to the warmest praise of the most inveterate enemies of mutual instruction, as having at last introduced what, since the period of the Revolution, numerous laws had attempted, but, from insufficiency and defect of method, without success, a general system, namely, of elementary instruction for the poorer classes of society.

While, for a length of time, other nations possessed a population well and liberally instructed, France, so much before them in many other respects, remained in this one point far behind. The great bulk of her population was plunged in ignorance; the impulse, however, when given, was not long of being universally felt, and the reproach that was once justly made against her no longer exists. The following figure, copied from a pamphlet, published by one of the Secretaries of the Society, shows the rapid increase of schools of mutual instruction from 1815 to 1819 inclusive:



But the blessings of education are not confined to children alone. Those who had grown up to manhood in ignorance are enabled, by a system of this nature, to secure the advantages of an education neglected in their youth. Into the armies of France the system of mutual instruction has been introduced by M. Appert, and the benefits that have arisen from it are visible. Many regiments now possess a school founded upon this principle; and many officers of high rank and distinguished abilities are using their utmost endeavours to extend their numbers, and have formed a sort of society solely with this view. Most of the young men now in service had been brought up at a period when education in France was held as but of secondary importance, and had indeed been called to arms whilst yet children. But many are making up at present for what had formerly been despised or overlooked. The want of instruction may not be felt during the bustle and thoughtlessness of a military life; but

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when disabled by disease, or retired from service, then it is that all the advantages of an early education will be felt, and the curse of ignorance will be experienced when it is too late to remove it.

If the advocates, however, of mutual instruction be numerous, its opponents are not less powerful; and it has been said of late that the Minister of the Interior has shewn himself decidedly hostile to the system. The clergy, too, have strenuously opposed its progress, and have gone so far, in some cases, as by their influence to abolish several schools in which the education was conducted upon this principle. An opposition of this kind, if the system be a good one, will not, it is probable, do much harm. It may be checked for a time, but its superiority, if it be superior, will soon appear; in which case, it is likely, this opposition will rather prove beneficial than otherwise to its extension.

In the capital, the Primary Schools, generally speaking, may be divided into schools of charity and schools of mutual instruction. The former of these give education to about 7000 children of both sexes, who are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, the girls also sewing. The boys are under the direction of the Brotherhood of Christian Doctrine, the girls under that of the Sisterhood of Charity. These schools are distributed pretty equally throughout the twelve arrondissements; and to maintain them, it is calculated that an expense of 12 or 15 francs for each indivual is necessary. Besides these schools, there are established in each *Mairie*, two primary schools, one for boys, the other for girls, kept up at the expense of the city of Paris, the teachers of which receive a salary of 1200 francs (£48.) per annum, and an additional sum of 240 francs for the purchase of prizes.

The schools of mutual instruction in the capital are also pretty numerous, and give instruction to a considerable number of children. They are divided into two classes, the one gratuitous, the other where a small sum of money is paid. In most cases these schools are founded by private individuals, or by the society of elementary instruction.

[The following account of the present state (1827) of education in France is from a Report of the Society for Elementary Instruction, of which mention is made on the preceding page, and of which a full account was given at page 666 of our second volume. Of the accuracy of the following account there can be no doubt, in the minds of those who are acquainted with the fact, that the above society numbers among its most active and responsible members, such men as De Gerando and Laborde, and has pursued its beneficent labours for twelve years, not without a jealous watchfulness and a systematic opposition, on the part of those who dread the consequences of general education and popular improvement.]

It is with profound regret, that, out of Thirty one Millions Six hundred Thousand inhabitants of France, we find from Fifteen to Sixteen Millions who can neither read nor write. Four Millions Five hundred Thousand children out of Six Millions, that is to say, precisely three fourths of those who are of age to be admitted into the Schools, are deprived of every kind of education.

It is true this deplorable want is very unequally felt. In some Departments of the north and the east, the number of children who attend the Schools may be one tenth of the population; while in others, it is not more than the two hundred and twenty ninth part. This deplorable neglect, which might be supposed only to apply to a barbarous country, is to be found in the heart of France. Our fruitful and smiling provinces of the south, which, during the darkness of the middle ages, preserved for a long time and rekindled first among us those sparks of sacred fire, are now most backward in knowledge.

Transl. London Mis. Reg. transcr. Christian Spectator.

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HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW-YORK.

From the Third Annual Report, made Nov. 12, 1827.

[Continued from page 69.]

The state of the Female High School next claims our attention. This branch of the institution is equally calculated by its value and importance to awaken our sympathies and regard. The school was first opened in February, 1826, and the last annual report of the trustees evinced, that it had auspiciously commenced, and that the monitorial system had been applied to it with the happiest success.

The three departments of this school have at present 359 scholars. The introductory department has 150 scholars, and is under the instruction of a principal and two assistants, All the scholars in this department are taught spelling, reading, and sewing; 77 of the girls are taught arithmetic with tables; 54 writing on slates; 96 writing on paper; 67 geography, and 28 marking on linen. This department includes all the smaller children, who commence here with the first rudiments of knowledge; and the docility, order, neatness, emulation, aspiring hopes, and infantine vivacity which are displayed in this school, cannot but excite emotions of tenderness and solicitude.

In the junior department there are 100 scholars, and this department is governed by a principal and two assistants.

All the pupils attend to spelling, reading, definitions, writing, geography, use of maps and globes, mental and mechanical arithmetic, English grammar, linear drawing, and needle work. There is a select class of 30 that study history.

Some of the trustees have very frequently witnessed the progress of the pupils in this department. Their penmanship is generally excellent, and their knowledge of geography and the use of maps extensive, simple, and accurate. The efficacy of the monitorial system is visible and most beneficial, and the intelligence which the young scholars display, and their admirable order, neatness, and discipline, do honour to the teachers and to their own industry.

In the senior department, over which Miss Starr presides with a capacity and fidelity that entitle her to the highest respect, there are at present 105 scholars instructed by the principal and two assistants. The studies in this department are distributed in the following manner.

All of them are taught grammar, composition, and moral philosophy, and nearly all of them pursue arithmetical studies, reading, geography, history, writing, map drawing, spelling with definitions, and derivations, needle work and drawing. Fourteen of them are taught book keeping with single entry; 20 read Blair's lectures; 8 Alison on taste; 16 classical biography; 4 of them astronomy; and there is a class of 20 young ladies who have gone through a system of botany.

The success of the studies of the young ladies in this department, and the specimens of their industry, talents, and taste are admirable. They form a beautiful exhibition of the powers of the female mind. And when we consider the entire collection of upwards of 359 scholars in this female seminary, and the nature, variety, and progress of their studies, that man's heart must be made of very impenetrable materials, who is not cheered and delighted with the contemplation of such a spectacle. It would be a great mistake if we were to consider female education as calculated merely to render ladies useful and agreeable as companions in domestic life. That is undoubtedly one important object. But it has a higher and nobler purpose: the best and most durable lessons, and the most happy direction which the youthful mind receives, is from the mother. It is her task to inspire her sons with the earliest love of knowledge, to teach them the precepts of religion, the charities of life, the miseries of vice, and to lead them into the paths of a just and honourable ambition. Lessons flowing from such a source, enforced by the most pathetic

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exhortations and the brightest example, are most likely to be tenaciously retained, and to survive if they do not entirely control the tumults of the passions and the conflicts of the world. In this view, therefore, as well as in many others, this female school is entitled to the most active and zealous patronage, by all well wishers to the honour and prosperity of our country.

INFANT SCHOOLS IN PHILADELPHIA.

We have more than once alluded to the philanthropy exercised in the establishment of these infant seminaries. The beneficial effects of this benevolent undertaking will be evidenced in after generations. At the request of a lady who has been anxiously engaged in furthering the existence of the institution since its commencement, we copy the following pleasing picture of its present appearance, from the Pennsylvania Gazette of Wednesday last.

Those who desire to see one of the most pleasing and interesting sights in our city, may be gratified by visiting the Infant School in Chester Street. Never did we see such a collection of comely, intelligent and happy little faces, as those presented to us at that institution yesterday; and what adds to the sympathy awakened in their behalf, is the reflection that they are, for the most part, the offspring of misfortune—the helpless objects of adversity and neglect. The names of one hundred and seventy children are entered upon the books of the school, of which about one hundred and fifteen regularly attend. Here are an hundred and fifteen children daily kept out of the street, out of danger, and out of the practice of profane language and vicious habits, and at the same time trained to order and usefulness. This is a great acquisition, but a wide field is open in which to extend these benefits.

The deportment of the teachers appears to be kind and affectionate, and the mode of instruction novel and well adapted to the capacity of the infant pupils, who in return yield ready and grateful obedience. The regulations and general management of the institution, seem also to be well adapted to the object in view.

To parents in straitened circumstances, who are under the necessity of going out to work, and leaving young children at home in the care of other children, it must be a very great relief to know that during their absence, their tender offspring will be kindly treated, and returned to them in safety. The benefit to the community, too, will be incalculable: it is beginning at the right place—for the fewer neglected children we have running wild through the streets, and into the haunts of vice, the fewer candidates we shall have for houses of correction, and for the penitentiary. There will be safety also in this institution, for whole neighbourhoods are endangered by leaving children in charge of houses necessarily containing fire.

After what we have stated, we need not add, that we think well of this charity. It is a pious and benevolent one, and well deserving high and especial favour. It is, therefore, with regret we learn, that its funds are inadequate to its present wants; and the managers, moreover, think it essential that this establishment should be extended so as to furnish a school for coloured children. An appeal to our fellow citizens, we know, would not be made in vain.—*Philadelphia Album.*

[The following paragraph is from Walsh's National Gazette.]

We rejoice to learn that the founders and patrons of the INFANT SCHOOL which was lately established in this city, have much reason to congratulate themselves on the effects of their benevolent enterprise. Great benefit has already been felt by the poor parents of the children, who are relieved of the care of them during their hours of necessary labour. Some, who entertain prejudices against the plan, have already acknowledged the signal advantage resulting both to them and their offspring. More attention is paid, in this school, to the health, comfort, and morals of the latter, than can be given at their homes. A single visit to the institution, would convince any humane observer of the strength of its claims to public notice and patronage.

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HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

A meeting of the Board of Overseers was held on the 10th January, in the Senate Chamber, at which his Excellency the Governor presided. Reports were submitted by several committees. The Governor, as chairman of the committee for making the annual Fall visitation of the College, presented the report of that committee. It was stated among other things in this report, that the committee attended to the duties assigned to them on the 16th of October last—that the reports then submitted to them from all the departments of the institution, furnished satisfactory evidence of the general good order, diligence, and proficiency of the students—that no disorder had occurred since the last report, and a general disposition had been manifested to make the best improvement of time, and to pay faithful regard to the requisitions of authority. The committee also attended an exhibition of the members of the Senior and Junior classes, from which they derived assurances of the talents, classic taste, and literary attainments of those who had parts assigned them for the occasion. They noticed with particular commendation an improvement in the style of elocution, which they say was clear, distinct, and impressive.

The board proceeded to make choice of a member of the Board of Overseers, in place of the late Lieut. Governor Phillips. The Hon. Thomas L. Winthrop was elected.

Extracts from the Report made by the President and Fellows to the Board of Overseers, at their last meeting.

HARVARD COLLEGE, Jan. 17, 1828.

To the Honourable and Reverend the Board of Overseers.

The income of the College having been much lessened during a few years past, by the discontinuance of the annual grant of ten thousand dollars from the State, and by other causes, several important changes in the management of its pecuniary concerns have been adopted by the Corporation. Some of these have already received separately the sanction of the Board of Overseers. But the Corporation ask leave now to submit a statement of the most important, in order that their connexion and operation, as parts of a system, may be seen at one view. Besides the plain obligation of bringing the expenses of the College within its income, which has been lately much exceeded, the Corporation found a motive for retrenchment in the conviction that it is of great importance to reduce the necessary expenses of the students.

In conformity with the advice of the Overseers, as Professorships became vacant, they have been united with others, or their duties assigned to other departments; and in every such case, the amount paid to one Professor has been saved. The University Professor of Metaphysics has been chosen Alford Professor, and is to perform all his former duties, excepting such as were deemed inconsistent with the statutes of the founder, which latter have been assigned to the Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory.

The University Professor of Greek has, in like manner, been chosen Eliot Professor of Greek. The instruction in Latin formerly given by the University Professor of that language, is now given by the Professor of Hebrew and other Oriental languages, and the duties of the University Professor of Mathematics are required to be performed by the Hollis Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, and the Tutors in that department. And thus all the four University Professorships, those, of which the salaries were paid wholly out of the general funds of the College, are abolished. The above mentioned officers have consented to perform the new duties thus assigned to them, although the Corporation do not allow them any additional compensation. In this respect they have varied from the former usage of the College Government, which was to grant additional pay, whenever new services were asked of any officer of the College. But they are of opinion, that the salaries allowed to the Pro-

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fessors, ought to be considered an adequate compensation for the devotion of their whole time and talents to the service of the institution. The stated salaries of two of the College officers, the Hersey Professor of Anatomy and Surgery, and the Smith Professor of Modern Languages, have been reduced by consent.

In the year 1813, a grant was made of three hundred dollars per annum to the President, and of two hundred dollars per annum to each Professor, in addition to their salaries, to continue during the pleasure of the Corporation. This grant has been repealed.

The Treasurer of the College has declined receiving any compensation beyond the actual expenses which he shall incur in discharging the duties of his office.

On the resignation of the late Erving Professor of Chemistry, his former duties were connected with those of the Mineralogical department. The vacancies, which have lately occurred in the Rumford Professorship, and in the Royall Professorship of Law, have not been filled, but their funds are specially appropriated by the donors, and cannot be applied to the general expenses of the College.

The saving to the College in consequence of new investments, and to the Students by reducing the charges in the term bills, cannot at present be accurately estimated, but the diminution of the annual expenses paid from the general funds of the College in consequence of the principal measures above stated, will, it is hoped, bring its expenditure within the income.

Boston Daily Advertiser.

IMPROVEMENT OF COMMON SHOOLS IN BOSTON.

Extract from Mr. Quincy's Speech to the City Council, Jan. 7th, 1828.

The expediency and mode of still father extending our present system of public schools, so as to embrace higher branches than those at present taught in them will, probably, in some form, be brought before the City Council.

In a city, which already expends *sixty thousand dollars* annually, on its public schools; which has a capital of certainly not less than two hundred thousand dollars invested in school houses alone, and whose expenses under this head, must, from the increasing nature of its population, unavoidably increase every year; attempts to extend the existing system of instruction, must, necessarily, give occasion to much solicitude and reflection. The great interest and duty of society and its great object in establishing public schools, is to elevate as high as possible, the intellectual and moral condition of the mass of the community. To this end our institutions are so constituted as to put every necessary branch of elementary instruction within the reach of every citizen, and to infuse, by the books read and branches taught in them, similar general views of duty and morals; and similar general principles relative to social order, happiness, and obligation throughout the whole society. Such is the present, general character of our common schools;—so called because they are the common right and common property of every citizen. If other and higher branches of instruction are to be added to those embraced by our present system of public education, it deserves serious consideration, whether the duty and interest of society does not require that they should be added to our common schools; and enjoyed on the same equal principles of common right and common property. In other words, whether the new branches shall not be for the benefit of the children of the whole community, and not for the benefit of the children of, comparatively, a few.

Every school, the admission to which is predicated upon the principles of requiring higher attainments, at a specified age or period of life, than the mass of children, in the ordinary course of school instruction at that age or period can attain, is, in fact, a school for the benefit of the few; and not for the ben-

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efit of the many. Parents, who, having been highly educated themselves are, therefore, capable of forcing the education of their own children;—parents, whose pecuniary ability enables them to educate their children at private schools; or who, by domestic instruction, are able to aid their advancement in the public schools, will, for the most part, enjoy the whole privilege. In form, it may be general; but it will be, in fact, exclusive. The sound principle, upon this subject, seems to be, that the standard of public education should be raised to the greatest desirable and practicable height, but that it should be effected by raising the standard of our common schools.—*Boston Com. Gazette.*

EDUCATION IN NEW-YORK.

Extract from the Message of Gov. Clinton, delivered to the Legislature of the State, convened at Albany, on Tuesday, January 1, 1828.

After recommending the adoption of measures to raise the standard of instruction to enlarge its objects and to elevate the qualifications and talents of teachers,—' Permit me' he says—' to solicit your attention to the two extremes of education—the highest and the lowest: And this I do, in order to promote the cultivation of those whom nature has gifted with genius, but to whom fortune has denied the means of education. Let it be our ambition (and no ambition can be more laudable,) to dispense to the obscure, the poor, the humble, the friendless, and the depressed, the power of rising to usefulness, and acquiring distinction.

With this view, provision might be made for the gratuitous education in our colleges, of youth eminent for the talents they have displayed, and the virtues they have cultivated in the subordinate seminaries. This would call into activity all the faculties of genius, all the efforts of industry, all the incentives to ambition, and all the motives to enterprise, and place the merits of transcendant intellect on a level at least with the factitious claims of fortune and ancestry.

In Great Britain, the institution of infant schools has been attended with signal benefit. This is the pedestal of the pyramid: it embraces those children who are generally too young for common schools: it relieves parents from engrossed attention to their offspring, softens the brow of care, and lightens the hand of labour. More efficacious in reaching the heart than the head, in improving the temper than the intellect, it has been eminently useful in laying the foundation of good feelings, good principles, and good habits.

An institution of this kind has been, if I am rightly informed, established in a neighbouring city, and some exemplary ladies in New-York, have, with that characteristic benevolence which forms the brightest jewel in the female character, devoted themselves and their merited influence to this inestimable object. Whenever such advocates for such institutions appear, they are entitled to the most liberal benefactions from individuals, and the most ample endowments from the public. Benevolence animates their hearts, and charity governs their lives.' *Albany Adv.*

EDUCATION IN PENNSYLVANIA.

From the Message of Governor Shulze.

' Whether we regard education in its probable influence upon the stability of our free republican governments, or as it may contribute to social and individual happiness, it equally deserves the earnest and unremitted attention of those who are honoured with the high trust of providing for the public welfare. If the culture of the understanding, and the heart be entirely neglected, in early life,

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there is great reason to fear that evil propensities will take root, where, with proper discipline, there might have been a rich harvest of usefulness and worth. A knowledge of our rights and a sense of our duties, a just estimate of the value of the blessings we enjoy, and an habitual desire to preserve them, are the wholesome fruits of that good seed, which it is the object and with the favour of Providence, the effect of moral and intellectual instruction to implant.'

'Until the difficulties, in the way of a general plan of education for all, which have hitherto been found insuperable, be overcome, it will be in the power, as it has always been in accordance with the disposition of the legislature, to afford a liberal aid to the exertions of public spirited and benevolent citizens.'

EDUCATION IN MARYLAND.

We have just received a copy of the First Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Maryland, to the Legislature of that State,—made on the 31st December 1827. It is a pamphlet of considerable size; and we are desirous of doing full justice to its contents. We regret, therefore, that it came to hand too late for our present No.; but we shall give copious extracts from it, in our next. Besides the details of legislative enactment, it contains some very valuable directions for common schools, which we think will be peculiarly acceptable to many of our readers.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Murray's English Grammar Simplified; Designed to facilitate the study of the English Language: Comprehending the Rules and Principles of English Grammar, illustrated by Appropriate Exercises. To which is added a Series of Questions for Examination. Abridged for the use of Schools. By Allen Fisk, Author of Adams' Latin Grammar Simplified. Hallowell; Glazier & Co. 1824. 8vo. pp. 173.

This work has several valuable recommendations as a school book. It adheres to the text of Murray, with strict fidelity in all essential points: it presents the grammar and the exercises so judiciously intermingled, that the learner acquires at once a theoretic and a practical knowledge of grammar, and does not undergo the labour of committing to memory what he does not fully understand, or what he cannot apply: the essentials are drawn out from the various contents of pages and chapters, and are placed prominently before the learner, with the advantage of familiar and thorough-going application, in copious illustrations: the minor details and the comparatively abstruse parts of grammar, are arranged in the form of lectures, which are attended with appropriate questions.

The book is very comprehensive; furnishing, in one cheap portable volume, all that is valuable in the larger grammar of Murray. This result is obtained by means of an ample page and close printing. On the whole, we know of no

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work so well adapted as this, to the objects of common education; and we shall be happy to learn that this brief notice has, in any instance, the effect of attracting the attention of teachers to so useful an aid to their labours.

Where teachers find it convenient, the use of the 'Conversations' of Ingersoll, in the form of an occasional reading lesson, will afford much pleasure and useful information to young classes. The study of Cardell's Philosophical views of Language, will always prove an aid to teachers who do not follow implicitly the theory of any individual, but who take good sense for their guide, and read rather to enlarge their ideas, than to form a system.

It is as a useful practical manual for schools, however, that we would recommend Fisk's Murray; and in this department of school books, it seems to us superior to any of the vast number of Grammars now before us.

An Etymological Dictionary, and Expositor of the English Language: containing the Radicals and Definitions of Words derived from the Greek, Latin, and French Languages; and all the generally used technical and Polite Phrases, adopted from the French and Latin. By William Grimshaw, Author of a History of the United States, History of England, &c. Second Edition, carefully revised and enlarged. Philadelphia; John Grigg. 1826. 12mo.

A book such as this might, at first sight, appear a very desirable one for common use, and, in particular, for such pupils as are unacquainted with the ancient languages. A more attentive consideration, however, will satisfy reflecting minds that this is not its true use. A young person learns little, if any thing, from being informed that the English word *camp*, for instance, is derived from the Latin word *campus;* unless he has read enough of Latin to know and *remember* that *campus* signifies a *plain* or *field*. By being taught arbitrarily from the dictionary the meaning of the Latin word, he learns, indeed, a fact which he may remember for a time, but which he cannot carry constantly with him, to apply habitually and almost unconsciously in his daily reading.

For another class of pupils, however,—for those who know something of the languages, this is an excellent book. It enables them to apply to actual purpose in their own language, what they might otherwise omit, or study too slightly to benefit by it; and it furnishes the teacher with the means of ascertaining satisfactorily whether his pupils are applying their etymology as fast as they learn it, and whether they are pursuing it as far as their ability and opportunities admit.

For these purposes, we would recommend this volume to all teachers who feel desirous that their pupils should enjoy every possible advantage for a full understanding, and a free and correct use, of the English language.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Adelaide Murray, or the Orphan's Refuge. By the Author of 'Harriet and her Cousin.' First American from the third Edinburgh Edition. Salem; Whipple and Lawrence. 1828. 18mo. pp. 180.

Religious feeling of great depth and fervour pervades the whole of this story; and the author manifests an earnest and anxious desire for the spiritual welfare of the young. That the degree of feeling excited by the perusal of the book is never too great, or that it is not kept up too long for the strength of juvenile readers, we cannot but entertain a doubt.

Gentle efforts, we believe, in all departments of education, are best adapted to the capacities and the condition of children, and are most easily associated with

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a voluntary and cheerful progress. It is quite too common for writers of books for children to appeal with unnecessary force and frequency to feeling, when perhaps a more natural and a more permanent result might be obtained, through the exercise of the understanding. This, we think, is emphatically true of books intended for the religious improvement of the young.

The volume before us, however, was designed apparently for youth rather than for childhood, and for the circle of genteel if not of fashionable life.

Stories from Scripture on an Improved Plan. New Testament. Boston; Munroe and Francis. New York; C. S. Francis. 1827. 18mo. pp. 180.

The volume corresponding to this and taken from the Old Testament, was mentioned at p. 752 of vol. ii. The object is the same in both—to provide for children too young to peruse the scriptures with advantage, a series of interesting narratives chiefly biographical. These books will be found very serviceable to parents and to the teachers of Sunday Schools, if, in teaching young children, the story is told in the teacher or parent's own words; the book being used chiefly as a guide to the oral narration.

The Prize, or the Three Half Crowns. By the Author of 'Self Conquest.' Boston; Bowles and Dearborn. 1827. 18mo. pp. 112.

The design of this story is exceedingly good, and the result highly favourable to juvenile improvement. In the course of the narrative, however, the virtues of the little heroine, though apparently voluntary, are not unfrequently aided by a good deal of anxious inculcation, going beforehand, and denying the child the pure pleasure of original and spontaneous action. To some expressions in the narration of Mrs. Marlow we must decidedly object, as unsuitable for the ears of children, although we freely admit that they give an air of life and reality to her story, and would do no harm to adult readers. We confess, too, that we should have been better pleased with the whole book, if the author had avoided the appeal to emulation, which, guarded as it is, we cannot think a pure motive in the case in which it is employed.

The Faithful Little Girl. A Story for Children. Boston; Munroe and Francis. New York; C. S. Francis. 1827. 18mo. pp. 70.

The allegory which forms the substance of this little book, is one of the finest, we think, that has for some time been offered to children. In the hands of parents and teachers it may do much good. It combines the humble virtues of daily life with religious instruction of a very elevated character. This is usually the point on which such books fail, or to which they are not adapted, but which is essential to the natural and permanent happiness of the reader.

Harry Hobart, or A friend in need is a friend indeed. Boston; Wait, Greene, & Co. 18mo. pp. 36.

This is one of a class of books very much needed—we mean such as are adapted to children in humble life. Too many of our best stories for children are confined, in most of their scenes, to the parlour and to incidents in families comparatively rich. To young readers in lower conditions these things are inapplicable, or operate through a very distant sympathy.

Harry Hobart furnishes much useful and interesting instruction to boys at school, guarding them against truant-playing and bad companions, as the great dangers of boyhood. The story is naturally told, and conducts its readers to a very happy and encouraging result, for those who steadily act up to resolutions of amendment.

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AMERICAN

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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE

University of Paris.—Origin of 'Nations' and 'Faculties.'

[We resume here the interesting history of public education in France—commenced in our last number.]

At a very early period of their history, Universities were divided into what were termed nations; and Paris, as the resort of strangers from all parts of Europe, was one of the first that adopted this arrangement. Duboullai defines a nation "*Corpus seu sodalitium aliquod magistrorum omnes artes indiscriminatim profitentium, in eadem matricula conscriptorum et sub eisdem legibus institutis præfectisque viventium.*"* This definition is rather too limited. A nation was composed of persons of the same country or tract of country, who, whatever might be the nature of their studies or pursuits, joined in forming a body, passing laws, regulations, and archives peculiar to themselves, governed by authorities eligible by themselves alone, and occupying buildings and pursuing a mode of life confined to their own company. With the other companies they had no connexion, except when they were convened to form the great council of the University. The members of these nations or provinces, as they were sometimes entitled, varied in different schools, according as the resort of foreigners was more or less considerable. To what epoch the rise of this system can with certainty be traced it is not easy to say, but Duboullai is inclined to carry it back as far as the reign of Charlemagne. The first nations that were es-

* I. 250.

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tablished he considers to have been the French and English; to which were added, towards the commencement of the tenth century, the Picard and Norman; but the greater proportion of writers deny their origin to be so remote, and refer it to the reigns of Louis VII., and Philip Augustus, when the term nation occurs in many official papers relating to the affairs of the University. Though they may not have existed so early as some would argue, yet undoubtedly they did exist before the thirteenth century; for at the period when Henry II. of England was engaged in his contest with St. Thomas à Becket, he offered to refer the adjustment of it to the judgment of the peers of France, the Gallican church, or the heads of the different provinces of the University of Paris. The term provinces here evidently refers to the institution of nations. The date of this fact is 1169.*

At the close of the twelfth, and beginning of the thirteenth centuries, then, the existence of this division into nations seems indisputable; the composition and number of each varied much, depending upon circumstances connected with the political state of the countries from which their members came. The four nations were those of France, England, Picardy, and Normandy. The first included besides the French, also Italians, Spaniards, Greeks, and Orientals; the English included Scotch, Irish, Poles, Germans, and all other northern students: it was the nation in which there were most dispute and bloodshed, as the two most powerful tribes, the English and Germans, were always struggling for supremacy.

The following is the order in which the nations stood, and in which they gave their votes; France, Picardy, Normandy, and England. Each nation was divided into provinces, and each province, farther, into dioceses. The names of the members of each province were enrolled in an inscription-book, and at their head had a Dean chosen by themselves. The Deans of the provinces formed the ordinary council of the procurator or head of the nation, and their agreement was necessary in every undertaking of importance.

Amongst the greatest privileges the nations possessed, was that of making, altering, or annulling their own statutes. About the commencement of the seventeenth century, it came to be a

* Vide Bulæum, Mathew Paris, et Meiners, v. i. p. 14. The precise words of the two first authors are, *et scholaribus diversarum provinciarum æqua lance negotium examinantibus*,—of course the word *scholaribus*, as was the custom in these times, applies to teachers as well as scholars.

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matter of dispute, if a nation had the right of binding its own members by statutes, contrary to or at variance with the statutes of the University? The English, (at that period named the German,) the Picard, and Norman nations all agreed in the affirmative; but the Procurator of the French nation, with the deans of the higher faculties, was of the contrary opinion, and insisted that no company had the right of making a law at variance with a University statute.

It was the perogative of each nation to choose its own office-bearers, the highest of whom was the Procurator, who was to the nation what the Rector was to the whole University; his duties were to defend the rights and privileges of the nation, call its meetings, collect its votes, swear in new office-bearers and new members; to keep the inscription-books and seal of the nation, and see that all the acts were properly attended to, and that the statutes were duly observed. With the other Procurators, he constituted the ordinary council of the Rector, and formed one of the great council, composed of Rector, Procurator, and Deans. Each nation had its own patron, church, place of meeting, academic buildings, great and small seal, archives, and treasury. Its revenues consisted of inscription-money, dues paid by office-bearers and graduates, and fines for infringement of statutes; and as the revenues of course increased with the number of students, it became a frequent matter of dispute to what nation a new member belonged. Each nation then was an independent body, and composed, with the other nations, the great council. The Procurators chose the Rector, were his ordinary advisers, and held regular meetings with him, in conjunction with the Deans of the higher Faculties, when they were established, to consider of the affairs of the University.

The origin of Faculties has, like that of nations, been disputed, but not with so much reason. The existence of Faculties, in the sense in which the name is now taken, arose from the dislike entertained by the University to incorporate into its body, which was constitutionally and essentially secular, the regular order of monks who had early established themselves in Paris. In the year 1229, when, from particular circumstances, lessons were suspended in the University, the Dominican friars, taking advantage of the cessation, instituted a chair of Theology, under pretence of preventing literature and science from falling altogether into decay. They were strenuously supported by the Bishop of Paris, and his Chancellor, and their example was soon

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followed by the Franciscan friars. The University at once perceiving the mischief that was likely to happen, used its most anxious endeavours to keep down the Mendicant monks. Both parties applied to the head of the church; and the dispute, which lasted from 1243 to 1257, ended in the latter coming off in great measure victorious, and in the former giving up many of its privileges. The Dominicans and Franciscans desired the right of establishing teachers in their own cloisters, who should be accounted members of the University, and whose degrees should be deemed equivalent to those of the University. The Rector and nations firmly refused to allow this claim, but the monks were favoured by Popes Innocent IV. and Alexander IV., who not only supported their pretensions, but, finding the University resolute, issued bulls, ordering it, on pain of being placed under the bann of the church, to take them into its body, and grant them the same rights as its other members. The heads of the University endeavoured, but in vain, to elude this injunction, while the monks and the Pope persisted in their demands; and at last, to prevent the destruction of the school, the assembled Doctors and Masters, in 1259, came to the determination, that they should acknowledge the masters and scholars of the Mendicant orders, but at the same time assign them the last place in processions, disputations, and promotions. In this way, they conceived, that while they submitted to the Pope's will, they had so done it as to disgust the friars, without giving them the right of complaint; the friars, however, neither complained nor retired in disgust, but, combining with the secular teachers of Theology, who had long been favourable to them, formed a separate body or Theological Faculty, at the head of which they placed a Dean, as the nations had Procurators. Thus the first Faculty was formed, and had a distinct existence from the nations. Faculties of Medicine and Canon Law very soon modelled themselves upon that of Theology. As early as 1270, it is proved, that the Faculty of Medicine had punished a member for contravening one of its statutes, and in the following year the Faculty of Laws possessed a seal similar to that of the nations.

The three Faculties are distinctly mentioned in a deliberation, in the year 1277, and four years afterwards they were confirmed in all the rights and privileges of the University. From this period, therefore, the school of Paris, which had hitherto consisted of four bodies, was composed of seven, namely of four nations and three Faculties, represented respectively by four

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Procurators and three Deans. It now took the name of the *New University*.

The four nations began at this time to be named the Faculty of Arts, and were much curtailed in their privileges. As all who were not Doctors in the superior Faculties belonged to the Faculty of Arts, it followed, that when the former conferred a a degree, it was upon a member of the latter, who, of course, was from that time not only lost to the nations, but converted into a rival and antagonist. A Faculty has been defined by Duboullai—*Corpus et Sodalitium plurimorum magistrorum, certæ alicui disciplinæ addictorum, sine ulla distinctione nationis.* The Faculties very soon began to consolidate themselves, and form laws and regulations like other companies; they had the same right as the four nations of choosing office-bearers, and of making statutes, and they were not long in taking advantage of these rights; their heads were named Deans, and in the Faculties of Law and Medicine there were two Deans, one ordinary, and elected annually, the other honorary. The duties of the Dean in his Faculty were the same as those of the Rector in the University, and of the Procurator in his nation. Before the formation of Faculties, the nations evidently possessed the right and the sole right of electing the Rector; but, after this, their right to do so was disputed, or at least divided, the Faculties had then each a vote in the nomination; but as their members only amounted to three, it happened that in most cases, when the nations were agreed amongst themselves, they still carried the nomination, as well as many other important questions, which at times were brought forward. But it did not always happen that they were in unison with one another, and very frequently by their disputes they gave the Faculties the advantage. In the election of Rector, differences were by no means uncommon. In 1249, the English, Picard, and Norman nations separated from the French, and in 1272, the Norman nation, and several Masters from the others, separated and chose their own Rector. In order to prevent occurrences of a like nature, an attempt was made to form a law similar to that for regulating the election of the Pope.

It was always the custom to give each nation and Faculty a particular honorary term, which it retained in all acts and statutes. What these were may be seen by the following list of Deans and Procurators :—

J. Mullot Decan. *Sacræ* Facultatis Theologiæ.
Ph. De Buisine Decan. *Consultissimæ* Fac. jur. Canon.

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In District No. 4, Miss Bailey's, Cambridge Street.
5, Miss Quincy's, afterwards Miss Newman's, Broad Street.
6, Miss Parker's, Sea Street.
7, Miss Groves, Carver Street.

Mrs. Ditson's school is held in a room which, from the smallness of its size, and its exposure to the noise of the street, is one of the most unfavourable that could have been selected for an experiment on this system; the teacher also manifested a hesitation bordering on repugnance, to the introduction of it. These obstacles have been completely overcome by the energy of the monitorial principle; and the school now exhibits an order and activity, forming a remarkable contrast to the quiet sluggishness of the former method. The teacher approves the plan in general, and makes but few deviations from it; and she considers her school much improved by it. The pupils change their places, and are drawn out in circles, in every period of fifteen minutes; and this is performed by words of command, and marches, resembling military evolutions, which though they have, at first, the appearance of confusion from the smallness of the room, are nevertheless conducted with great regularity and adroitness. We consider this example remarkable; as exhibiting the successful operation of the plan, in a room, which would heretofore have been thought entirely inadequate to it. It may not be irrelevant to mention in this place, that in this district we understand all the schools are put voluntarily by the committee, upon the plan in trial by us; and that it is uniformly approved by them and the instructers, and considered to have contributed materially to the improvement of the schools.

Miss Hall's school is in a room of ample dimensions, where the operations are unobstructed. The teacher is young, and has not been much attended to by the committee. She adheres very closely to the printed plan;* her monitors of the first class are very good; and her school is in every respect a very fair example of what would be the average of the schools, if the system was general, and proper rooms provided for them. The effect of the system on the order of this school, and on the interest excited in the pupils, is truly surprising. The change of position of the scholars, at the commencement of the periods, from the single line to the monitorial circles, and back again, is directed by a whistle; and the movements are made with a celerity,

* See Vol. II. p. 292.—*Ed.*

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which seems instantaneous. The simultaneous exercises are harmoniously performed ;—the reading very good ; spelling excellent ; the punctuation and numbers taught simultaneously from painted boards, a striking and peculiarly successful method. The teacher likes the plan very much, and finds it very easy of execution ; she has nothing of severity or of austere dignity in her manner ; and yet it seemed to us that she might govern and teach a hundred pupils in her room with as much ease as she could twenty, on the common system.

Miss Lord's is the best of the schools selected for the trial of the system, and is therefore the fairest example of its operation on schools of the highest order. The room is of middling size ; the monitors good ; a good class of pupils ; and the teacher well qualified, intelligent, assiduous, and energetic. With these advantages we had reason to expect the greatest results ; and we have not been disappointed. The exhibition of the attainments of the pupils in their various exercises is very pleasing ; we hear from lips which have scarcely lost the lisp of infancy, reading, and replies to various questions, in a perfection seldom seen in adult exhibitions. The spelling is not so good owing to a defective method. We are not disposed to claim for the monitorial system all the excellence of this school, which we know is to be chiefly attributed to the character of the teacher, and to other advantages ;—but it is sufficient to say, that she prizes the system highly, adopted it voluntarily, and considers her school greatly advanced by it.

Miss Bailey's school, in District No. 4, had always been of an inferior order ; and so favourable a result was not expected from the introduction of the monitorial system into it as in the other schools. The result of the experiment, however, has been in a good degree satisfactory. In our opinion, this school is at the present time in a much better condition than it was when the system was commenced in it, and according to the representations of the local committee better than at any former period. There is great order in the school, and the children are more thoroughly instructed under the present, than under the old system. But it should be understood, that the school is still backward ; and would give to any one who should examine it on the old method, an unfavourable impression of the system. It has laboured under great disadvantages. It was held in summer in a very spacious room, and from thence was necessarily transferred, about three months since, to a very small and inconvenient one. A family affliction of peculiar character, sustain-

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ed by the instructer, suspended for a time the operations of the school; and sickness among the children, has prevented a regular attendance.

The printed plan is adhered to by the instructer, who has become much attached to it; and would be very unwilling to return to the former system.

The selection of Miss Quincy, as a teacher, in district No. 5, who had been educated in the monitorial system at the High School for Girls* induced your committee to select her school for this experiment. The school was a new one in Broad Street, and composed entirely of young children, and those of a very irregular and intractable character: there was no first class, and of course there could be no monitors who were fit for that office. In this respect, it is yet the most destitute school to be found in the city. The plan could, of course, be only partially, and imperfectly carried into operation; yet it has been manifest, from the close observation we have given to this school, that its progress has been great, and derived almost entirely from what has been introduced and retained, of the plan in trial—with regard to the order it was generally found very good; while a neighbouring school of better materials, and conducted by a more commanding teacher, was in frequent confusion. The inadequacy of this school, however, to the experiment, induced the committee, at a late period, to change the selection, and to assign it to Miss Newmarch in the same street. This is a longer established school, and contains older and more advanced pupils; but they are of the same original disorderly and irregular character; and the teacher was ignorant of, and averse to, the system. This change has been adopted so recently, that its effect on the tuition of the pupils cannot yet be ascertained. But we mention, as an evidence of the perspicuity of the plan, that in the short space of two weeks, every part was in regular and familiar operation, and practised in a very adroit manner by all the children. The school exhibited an interest and animation never before witnessed in it, and the teacher is thoroughly convinced of the superiority of the system.

Miss Parker's school is in a room of good size, and the plan is conducted in it with great accuracy; the activity and animation are very general, and well sustained. The teacher does not, however, consider the system conducive to order, which she

* See accounts of this school in the first and second volumes of the Journal.—*Ed.*

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thinks is not so good as in the common system; an opinion in which she appears to differ from all others, and from the judgment we formed in our observation of her school. She considers, however, the tuition to be far more expeditious than on the common plan, and, on the whole, the system to be a great improvement. We discerned a very great and decided advance in this school, from our earlier to our later visitations, and consider it now to be one of superior character.

Miss Grove holds her school in a small room of inconvenient construction; it wants ventilation; and the children appear very sickly, and cough a great deal, which not only interrupts their instruction, but imparts a languor to all the exercises.* The teacher adopted the system with a reluctance which seems to pervade the district. She has, however, been assiduous in using it, and has done all in her power to give it effect. There are but few deviations from the plan, and those rather improvements. We should not place this school among the most striking examples of the success of the experiment, particularly in regard to its order, yet the school is evidently improved by it. The exercises are well performed; and the teacher, though she does not consider her own labours relieved by it, finds no difficulty in its execution, and admits the superiority of its effect on the pupils.

Having thus stated the effect of the introduction of the monitorial system, on the schools selected for it, it will be expected that we should proceed to present our own judgment on the gen-

* We are happy to understand that a committee has been appointed, for the purpose of conferring with the city council, on the subject of the rooms used for primary shools. Effective measures for improvement, will, it is to be hoped, result from this proceeding; for many of our primary schools are now taught in rooms utterly unfit for such purposes.

The great number of these schools, renders, it, indeed impossible to furnish all, or even a considerable proportion, with new rooms and adequate accommodations. The expense would be beyond the means which it would be possible, in any public way, to furnish. Still, much might be done, on a smaller scale, and by measures adapted to present exigencies. A small addition to the salary of the teachers would enable them to dispense with unwholesome *stoves*, and to use *open fire places*,—to have such alterations made as would be requisite to have the windows let down at the *upper part*, instead of being *raised*,—to have one or two panes at the top of every window, formed so as to serve for *ventilation*,—to have the scholars seated *separately*, as on the new plan, adopted in a few of the schools; so that the children need not be crowded and wedged on their forms, as is too much the case now, and adds very greatly to the oppressiveness of hot weather,—and to have a *thermometer* furnished for each school room. These helps would do much for comfort and for health, both to the children and the teachers, even in the rooms now occupied.

Editor.

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eral success of the experiment, drawn from our own observation of its operation.

It will be recollected that the advantages proposed to be attained by this system, were—

1. Relief to the labours of the teacher.
2. Better order and discipline, without the necessity of constant and irksome punishment.
3. More animation and interest to the pupils.
4. Greater rapidity of tuition.

These objects were to be effected in our plan by the assisting agency of monitors; the constant occupation of the classes, and a division of time, and change of occupation, to produce variety.

With regard to the first of these designs, the relief of the teachers, we have no hesitation in saying, that it has been but slightly, if at all accomplished. The unremitting supervision of the whole school, by the teacher, seems to be as necessary on this sytem, as the common one. We ought not, perhaps, to have calculated that, in a system entirely new, and apparently complex, where much was to be learned by the teacher, as well as the pupils, one of the earliest results would have been relief; and should this always continue to be the case, in its maturer perpetuation, we should not feel great disappointment; for we consider this to be a very subordinate object. It has not been a subject of complaint, that the duties of the teachers were too arduous, for their strength and compensation; and the design of relieving them, was merely that the exertions which were saved to them, might be directed to better effect than at present; and this we are abundantly satisfied, is the fact on our system. The teacher is, indeed, constantly and arduously occupied, but far less irksomely, and more effectually. The exertions which were formerly wasted in unavailing attempts to preserve discipline, have now a more direct and influential bearing on the order and tuition of the school.

Order and discipline—which form the second object proposed, are attained, to a very gratifying degeee; punishments are obviously far more rare, in the monitorial, than in the other schools; and we are not without hope, that a further continuance and improvement of the plan, would banish severity entirely.

The increased animation and interest imparted to the pupils by this system, are unquestionable—this is an invariable fact, in the worst, as well as the best of these schools, and it requires ten minutes, presence only, of the most sceptical observer in

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one of them, at any period, as usually conducted, to be convinced of it. Little or no judgment, however, can be formed of this circumstance, in an examination by a member of the district or standing committee, for during this time the whole monitorial routine is necessarily and properly suspended; and the pupils are remanded to a method to which they have become unaccustomed; they are deprived of an excitement to which they are habituated; the greatest part are unavoidably idle; and we are not only not surprised, that a greater languor and confusion should be observable in these schools, than in others, at such periods; but should expect that the attainments in tuition should appear less than they really are. Yet these examinations are the only tests by which the real progress of the schools in education can be judged; and by these tests we are willing to abide.

We are equally satisfied with the result of this system, in respect to rapidity of tuition; the most important of the improvements contemplated. A system which gives constant and almost involuntary action to all the pupils, upon every branch of their studies, must, of necessity, communicate to them materials of the memory, in greater number and frequency than could be effected, when the reception of them depended on their own reluctant exertions, and the uniform testimony of the teachers, and of our own observations, only confirm our expectations on this head. But a question here arises, whether the solidity of the attainments, or in other words, whether the accuracy and perfection with which the various exercises are fixed on the memories of the pupils, are proportioned to the celerity of acquisition, or whether the former is sacrificed to the latter.

If the pupils on the common system were really engaged in study, when not in examination, and were found to be desirous of employing all their time, diligently in their own improvement, this question of the accuracy of their acquirements, would be a more serious one; and even then, would be but a doubtful question. But while the fact obviously is, that the greatest part of children in our schools, spend in idleness and play, most of the time allotted to them for study, we cannot perceive how they are enabled by this conduct, to imbibe the various branches of their education, with greater precision and permanency, than by an active operation in the school, which compels their participation. The question, however, is to be decided like all others, by observation; and so far as ours has extended, we have not perceived any defect in the thoroughness with which

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exercises are performed by pupils, which we could trace to our plan. In regard to reading, and recitation, two very important branches, the advantage of perfection is decidedly on the side of the monitorial system.

But we have learned, that this point is not to be settled by a trial of a few months; for it depends not on the accuracy attained by any class, put upon this method, compared with that which it exhibited a short time previous, on the common system, but on the excellence attained by the pupils of a first class, which should have been brought forward on the monitorial system, from their first entrance into the school; and this it would require three years to bring to the test.

We learn from a member of the Standing Committee a fact, which throws some light on this subject. He examined, last September, a school in District No. 1, where the monitorial system, on our plan, is in operation. The teacher had been but a short time elected. She received the school in a low state; the two first classes which had received their incipient instruction on the common system, were still, at the time of examination, inferior in their acquirements to the average of other scholars of the same classes, in the district; while the two lower classes which had been educated by herself entirely on our system, exhibited a degree of perfection very rarely seen in pupils of that standing. We think this fact serves as much as any single instance can do, to indicate the influence, a complete tuition through all the classes, will have on the ultimate perfection of the pupils.

We now proceed to notice some objections to the system in question, and to show the degree in which they have been refuted, or confirmed.

At the original proposal of this change, it was objected,

1. That it was suited only to large apartments constructed for the purpose; and would be impracticable in such rooms, as our instructers were usually obliged to occupy.

2. That the children taught in the primary schools, were too young to afford competent monitors—and

3. That the plan was too novel and complex, to be understood and practised by the majority of teachers.

The first objection has proved invalid, in a degree which has quite surprised us. This, which was supposed to be the most serious obstacle, has been found to be none at all. It is true, indeed, that the monitorial operation is conducted with much greater order and facility, in large rooms, and appears to much

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greater advantage. But of the schools selected for the trial, there are some of less than the ordinary size; and in these, the evolutions are performed with much less difficulty than could be supposed, by one who had not witnessed them. We do not say there is no inconvenience. A small room is inconvenient for any system; but we are satisfied, that this inconvenience is felt as much on the common plan, as on that we have introduced.

The second objection, (the incompetency of monitors,) has in one instance been realized, and has occasioned some embarrassment. This has not, however, arisen from the youth of the children generally; for there are some pupils under six years of age, who are quite competent to the office, and in the majority of the schools of the city, there are enough of qualified pupils in the first classes, for all the purposes of the system; but it is owing to the inequality of the schools in this respect—for there are some, in which there is scarcely any first class; while in others, nearly one third of the school is advanced to that grade. In the seven schools selected by us, without any consideration of this circumstance; there was only one, (as has been stated,) where the experiment was defeated, or even obstructed by the incapacity of the monitors. The fullest force of this objection, would only, therefore, go to prove, that the system is inapplicable to some of the schools, and those we believe to be few; while it would have no bearing on the greatest number. But the example of Miss Quincy's school, will serve to show, that even where there are no competent monitors for the object of instruction, a partial application of the plan may be made, with advantage.

With regard to the novelty and complexity of the plan, we have found it to be an objection which has vanished upon trial. There is no teacher who has yet adopted it, who has not found it perfectly easy and practicable, in every part, even when deterred by its appearance at first; nor do we believe there is any teacher in the city, who is at all competent to be such, who would not be familiar with its execution, in less than a month. 'The explanations' to be given or required on a 'story,' is the only part of the plan, which has given any embarrassment to any instructer; and this has been soon relieved, while on the other hand, some have managed this point in an ingenious and highly interesting manner, and one which we think peculiarly beneficial to the children.

But we would go further, than simply to deny this objection; and assert, that the plan is more useful to a dull, than an able

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instructer; as it is minute in its detail; and leaves less to the judgment of the teacher, than the common system. An instructer who follows its provisions exactly, could not but teach her pupils, whether her own capacity is great or small. We have noticed a greater and more perceptible improvement in schools of ordinary, than those of higher character, and hence we infer that a general introduction of the system, would tend to the equalization of the schools, which has been always a desideratum with the board.

A new difficulty, however, has arisen, which we did not foresee. The system requires the aid of a timepiece, to regulate the periods. We supposed that every teacher was provided with this article, for the commencement and close of her school; we have found some, however, who are destitute of it; and who of course are unable to assume the monitorial system. How far this difficulty is removable, we leave to the board to determine.

Having thus stated all the results of our observation and judgment on the trial assigned to us, it only remains incumbent on us to offer our recommendations to the board.

Although the experiment which has been made, has thus far succeeded beyond our expectations, and although we have every reason to be confirmed in our opinion of the utility and superiority of the system; we yet consider, that the trial has been incomplete; and when we reflect that the change proposed, is very novel and great, that it is viewed with great scepticism, by many without, and within this board; that it is not generally regarded with friendly eyes, by the teachers who have not adopted it, and that some of the schools are not in a condition to receive it with effect; we deem it not prudent, to urge the immediate introduction of the system, into all the primary schools of the city; but we think those schools, where it is now in operation, should be suffered to continue it, under the direction of the members of the Committee who have the charge of them; and that the District Committees, should be authorized to introduce the system, into any of their schools, where they think it would be beneficial; recommending to them to have regard to the favorable opinion of the instructers, which is an important element of success. With regard to the particular plan adopted,* we can only say that, that which is now in use, has had the singular

* The plan and its explanation are given in full at p. 292 of our second volume.—*Ed.*

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good fortune to have stood the ordeal of seven months' full operation, and critical examination in fifteen schools or more, and of constant and vigilant inquiry, without any alteration having been pointed out, of any importance, or in the necessity of which, any two persons have agreed. Any serious defects it may contain, must therefore be left for future discovery and correction; and we have no change to propose on this head.

Respectfully submitted by order of the Committee.

J. P. BLANCHARD, *Chairman.*

PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF MARYLAND.

[From the First Annual Report of Littleton Dennis Teackle, Esq., Superintendent of Public Instruction.]

In the preparation of a plan of Public Instruction, and in the formation of a system of Primary Schools,* two distinct and several points present themselves for consideration—to wit: the course of study, and the mode of instruction.

With respect to the first, the course to be pursued in every primary school must embrace *reading, writing, and arithmetic.* These are the rudiments of learning, and the first object of such an institution. And it has been truly said that where any of these elementary parts of education cannot, from inability in the teacher, be obtained, or where any of them are excluded from a misconception of their unimportance, the principal requisites of a primary school are wanting; and the privileges of such a school as contemplated by the Legislature, cannot be claimed, nor ought they to be enjoyed. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, as they are the means of acquiring all subsequent knowledge, may justly be considered the necessaries of education; which, like the necessaries of life, are first to be secured. Nothing short of these will constitute a primary school, nor gratify the lowest requisites of the law enacted for this establishment—and by a liberal construction of that law, and especially in consideration of the great benefit to be derived from it, the course of study in primary schools should extend beyond these limits, and embrace all the branches of useful knowledge, which constitute a good common education.

* See Intelligence in this No.

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In a country where children have much time to spend at school, there is an obvious propriety in requiring a more extended and comprehensive course than under other circumstances it would be reasonable to expect. The propriety of this is impressed with greater force, from the consideration that the primary schools are contemplated as the main channels for the common diffusion of useful knowledge. Academies are too few in number, and too remote from the mass of the people, to subserve the purposes of general education—and their design is not so much to instruct in that kind of knowledge which constitutes a common education, as in the high departments of classical attainment, while the primary school, established in every neighbourhood, and within the reach of every family, will become the great and principal source of useful knowledge. Education will there begin, and, in most cases, will terminate in these schools. In proportion to the advantages there enjoyed by the youth, will be their value in riper years, as citizens and their usefulness in public life, and the prosperity and moral character of the country.

It is therefore, proper to adopt and pursue a course of instruction as liberal and comprehensive as the means assigned, and other circumstances, will warrant, or admit of.

In addition to the first rudiments of education, which have been already enumerated, the course of study, in every well organized primary school, ought to include *English grammar, geography, surveying, the history of our country, its constitution and form of government, the crimes and punishments of our criminal code,* and such parts of our *civil jurisprudence* as every man in his daily intercourse with the world is concerned to know. It is not expected that the whole course of study, here recommended, will be immediately adopted in every school. The want of suitable books, with other causes, may prevent many from introducing them at once. But it may be expected that every school, which receives the public bounty, will adopt as much of the plan here proposed, and pursue it as thoroughly, as from its condition, it may be enabled.

It cannot be objected to the course of study here prescribed, that it embraces subjects of minor importance. Whatever may be thought of the practicability of introducing into the primary schools, the different studies here enumerated, of their utility, and importance to youth, there ought not to be a diversity of opinion. Of *English grammar*, it might be sufficient to observe, that it has been admitted in all well regulated common schools,

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ever since it became a science. But independent of immemorial usage, the utility of grammar, as a study for youth, is apparent from the consideration that it treats of the nature and proper use of language, and that the study of it is one of the best exercises to strengthen the judgment, and at the same time to improve the memory. To understand the natural power of language, and to be able to use it definitely ourselves, or to construe it when used by others, it is necessary to have at least a general knowledge of its grammatical construction. A man accustomed to the English language, by applying to it the rules of grammar, and *testing* its correctness by that standard, will from that operation alone, be better able to understand the natural force and meaning of language, and be more likely to use it properly both in speaking and in writing. If the knowledge derived from such exercises be more generally diffused, our language will be less liable to change, and there will be less of that obscurity, and imperfection in contracts, and other acts of individuals, which now compose a common source of litigation.

Geography is recommended as a suitable study for primary schools, because the knowledge of it is useful in itself, while its study is peculiarly adapted to the capacities of children, and calculated perhaps more than any other, to engage their attention. Youth is the proper season for all studies depending chiefly on the memory; as well because that faculty is then more mature than any other, as that impressions then made on it are more durable. Geography, consisting for the most part of particular and independent facts, not requiring in its study the exercise of any other faculty than that of memory, and requiring the exercise of that faculty in its fullest extent, there is a peculiar propriety in making it a leading object of study in primary schools. Its influence, also, on the minds of children by enlarging their ideas, and carrying their thoughts beyond the narrow sphere in which they live, is another consideration not less favourable to the early cultivation of this important science.

In regard to *surveying*, it can hardly be necessary to enlarge upon its utility. In a country so essentially agricultural as ours, where almost every man has occasion to apply in practice the principles of surveying, some general knowledge of the art is important both for his interest and convenience. He ought to understand, at least in theory, the nature and use of the compass; the measurement of land by courses and distances; and the computation of areas on the most improved methods. But obvious as is the necessity of some general knowledge on this

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subject, the most of men are deficient in it. The neglect of this branch of instruction is probably owing to a supposed difficulty in the subject, and the want of suitable instruments to illustrate and apply its principles. But as to any real difficulty, it is far less than in many of the abstruse parts of *arithmetic*, in which the greatest progress is often made at school; and it would certainly be a profitable change, to transfer the time which is commonly spent, or rather misspent, on the speculative parts of arithmetic, to this practical and useful study. Less time and labour than are required to understand a few puzzling rules, or intricate problems in arithmetic, would be sufficient to overcome all the difficulties in the art of surveying; and at the same time much greater improvement would be afforded to the mind of the pupil. It is not intended to disparage the study of arithmetic, in its elementary and practical parts; it is only that part of arithmetic, which has no connexion with the common concerns of life, which is here considered of little value. A practical knowledge of surveying, derived from actual practice with the chain and compass, is not expected to be taught in primary schools. A general knowledge of its principles, so as to enable the pupil to apply them in after life, is all that is required. And as this knowledge may be derived from books, without the aid of any costly apparatus, there can be no reason why it should not be taught in these schools. And if its relative value be justly regarded there is every reason to give it a conspicuous place in a course of study, such as now is contemplated.

In selecting objects of education, adapted to this system, the superintendent conceives that the history of our own country, with its constitution and form of government, cannot properly be excluded—on the contrary he believes that a knowledge of these subjects ought to be early inculcated in the minds of youth. In other countries, under other forms of government, the general diffusion of such knowledge, if not considered dangerous, might be viewed with indifference; but in our own country, where the people are entrusted with the government of themselves, a knowledge of the constitution, and form of government under which they live, is necessary to enable them to govern with wisdom, and to appreciate the blessings of their free and happy condition. Nor is the knowledge of their own history less important. By enabling them to trace the rise and progress of their civil liberties, it cannot fail to impress them with a due sense of the great privileges they enjoy, and to endear and perpetuate the institutions under which those privileges are held. Such

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knowledge, so salutary in its influence, ought surely to be made a necessary part of their elementary education. If it be taught to them in childhood, while their habits and affections are forming, and their mind gradually acquiring its cast, the impression will be deep and identified with their existence ; whereas, if left to after years, the impression received, although at first sufficiently strong, will, in its duration, be comparatively transient.

In recommending the study of our criminal code, so far as it relates to the nature and definition of public offences, and the extent of punishments, the superintendent is aware of the novelty of the proposition ; but he is confident it will not be thought useless, nor impolitic, when it is considered how much it concerns every man to know what acts are criminal in law, and what measure of punishment is provided for them ; and when it is also considered that many acts are made criminal by the legislature, which, not being so independent of positive regulation, are to be learned only by study and research. It cannot have escaped the most common observation that offences, made such by acts of Assembly, are often committed through ignorance of the law, and that the guilt of violations, is sometimes incurred through ignorance of the extent of their criminality. And while it is recognized as a fundamental principle that 'ignorance of the law excuses no man for its transgression', no man can be safe without some knowledge of those acts for the transgression of which he is unconditionally answerable. The influence, also, which such knowledge has on the mind, is another consideration, not less favourable to its early cultivation. If a knowledge of the nature of crimes and punishments be early impressed on the minds of children, their abhorrence of criminal acts cannot fail to be deep and enduring, and the probability of their committing them proportionably diminished. It may, however, be proper to observe that it is not intended to recommend the study of the law generally in primary schools ; but of such parts only, as every man of business ought to know, and which, if he does not learn at school, he will find himself deficient in the ordinary pursuits of life. A knowledge, for example, of what contracts should be in writing ; of what solemnities are required in wills and other instruments, of what consideration is necessary in certain agreements ; and of such other parts of law, as are of like applicability to our daily concerns and avocations, is of such obvious importance that it cannot be necessary to urge arguments in its favour.

It may perhaps be objected to the course of study here pre-

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scribed, that it will require more time than children ordinarily have to spend at school. In answer, however, to that objection it might be observed that most children spend the greater part of their time at school, between the ages of five and fifteen years, a length of time much greater than is spent in acquiring any of the common arts, or learned professions, and abundantly sufficient, with ordinary diligence, to complete a course even more enlarged and comprehensive.

Having explained the course to be pursued in the primary schools, it might be proper in this place, to present a selection of suitable books for these schools; but the superintendent would rather refer the determination of the matter to the decision of the executive department of the state, or he would prefer to consult the wisdom of that department upon a matter so important and interesting. But, while upon the subject, he will state that uniformity in the use of school books, in itself so desirable, is more especially so, from the circumstance of teachers being frequently changed. Without some general standard to appeal to as authority, every new teacher will introduce his own favourite school books; and if they differ from those used by his predecessor, it will necessarily interrupt the advancement of children in their course of study; and will involve the expense of new books. All this inconvenience may be avoided by using the same books, in all the schools. It is therefore, respectfully recommended that it be made the duty of the superintendent to present a selection of proper books, stationary, and appendages for the use of the primary schools to the Governor and Council, whose duty it shall be to adopt such as shall be approved of them, and affix the rates at which the same shall be supplied, upon the requisition of the trustees or other authorities, under the law. And in anticipation of this course, the propriety of which would seem to be unquestionable, the superintendent despatched circulars to the commissioners of primary schools in the several counties, and accompanied the same with a notification, to the trustees of the school districts.

The superintendent will next proceed to give some advice on the *mode of instruction* to be pursued in the primary schools.

In the instruction of youth, the first object of the teacher should be to make the study *a voluntary and agreeable employment*. Children are naturally averse to all serious occupation, and prone to desert their books, and resort to play. Not sensible of the immediate advantages of knowledge, and incapable of

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appreciating the ultimate benefits to be derived from its acquirement, they are restless and impatient under the restraints which it imposes; to overcome this restlessness and impatience, and to render the pursuit of learning voluntary and pleasing, are preliminary points in the business of education—and until this is gained, but little progress can be expected. Unwilling study imparts but a feeble and transient impression. These preliminary points, however, being gained, the greatest obstacle is overcome, the pupil will proceed on the road to knowledge of his own accord, and having a sufficient motive within himself, his teacher will be relieved from the unpleasant alternative of coercion, or punishment. To effect this the study of the pupil should be adapted to his capacity: 'A given task limited to what he can easily perform, should be assigned to him, he should be assisted in his progress by the kindness and attention of his teacher; and his emulation should be excited by contending with others in the same pursuit.' These are the leading means by which the great object, herein proposed, is to be achieved—whilst, on the contrary, if the study of youth be not suited to their capacity, not only the time devoted to it will be wasted, but every natural or preconceived aversion will be confirmed. Children under the age of ten years should be directed to such incipient books, and elementary branches of study, as mainly depend on memory—the tables of arithmetic and simple rules are of course included, but the combination of rules in arithmetic, requiring the exercise of considerable judgment, cannot be held as properly applicable to the early stages of education. It should be reserved for after years, when the judgment shall have become more mature—the same remark may apply with equal force to English grammar; as it is a study, when rightly pursued, which involves the analysis of language, and requires more thought and reflection, than children, under the age of ten are capable of; memory it is true, is employed in committing the rules and definitions of grammar; and, so far as that faculty is concerned, children at a very early age are competent to the study; but the application of these rules, in the exercise of parsing, is the peculiar province of the judgment.

To induce children to apply themselves willingly to study, it is important that a *definite task* should always be assigned to them. At the first view this may not appear to be deserving of the importance which is here ascribed to it; but a little reflection will present it in a different light. A child, who on entering on his study, has a given task before him, knows or can calcu-

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late with certainty when his labours will be ended. He sees that it depends upon himself, whether he is to be sooner or later, liberated. This circumstance, more perhaps than any other, alleviates the burden of his study, and animates him to greater exertion. On the other hand, without a given task before him he sees no other termination to his labours, than the uncertain will and pleasure of his teacher. In this state of uncertainty, he naturally becomes impatient, and associating study with his restlessness of mind he contracts an unwillingness, if not a dislike for it. Nothing tends more to alleviate labour, than the prospect of a certain end to it in view. It relieves the mind from that wearisome state of uncertainty which makes the time seem longer than it really is. This principle, if judiciously applied, may be subservient to the best of purposes ; while, if neglected, it may defeat the wisest plans of education.

In making study a voluntary and agreeable employment to youth, much also will depend on *the character and conduct of the teacher*. Children associate study with the circumstance under which they pursue it ; and no circumstance is more important in this respect, than the treatment they receive from their teacher. If that treatment be mild, conciliatory, and impartial, it will attach them to study, inspire them with confidence, and at the same time increase that deference and respect for their teacher, which they ought always to feel for him. True deference and respect are identified with friendly feeling ; without that support they degenerate into servile fear. Harshness and severity should only be resorted to as a punishment for actual offences. For any other purpose, they not only subvert their own ends, but tend to alienate the affections of the pupil from his teacher, and to confirm whatever preconceived aversion there may be to study. The ordinary deportment of a teacher towards his pupil, should, in fact, be similar to that of a parent towards his child—as, indeed, for the purposes of education, the teacher stands in the relation of a parent to his pupil ; he has the like power and authority over him ; and is morally bound to the like kind offices, and endearing duties. He should at all times be accessible, and ready and willing to assist the pupil in removing the difficulties he finds in his way.

The influence which a teacher, by proper management, may acquire over his pupil is very great. There is no other relation in society, excepting that of parent and child, so favourable to influence on the one hand, and submission on the other. Children readily yield to a teacher, whom they love, that which

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they would obstinately withhold from every other person. To please him they will cheerfully undertake the most difficult labours, and submit, without a murmur, to the greatest privations. To cultivate this influence, and to apply it practically to education, is a principal part of a teacher's duty. If he succeed, in this particular, the other duties of his office will seem to follow of themselves; and his task, which before was a burden, will become an agreeable occupation.

But the most effectual means of rendering study a voluntary and agreeable employment, is by raising and keeping up, the emulation of the pupil.* *Emulation* in children supplies all the motives to action, which *interest* and *emulation* do in manhood. It is a principle implanted in the youthful mind, apparently for the purposes of improvement; but whatever be its design, it is certain that there is no other principle which can be made more subservient to the purposes of education. The utility and necessity of knowledge may be urged as motives of study; but their influence will be rarely effectual. The great benefits of knowledge, being realized only in manhood, are too distant, and too indistinctly seen, to actuate a child in his youthful pursuits. He looks to something nearer; some present good to reward his daily toils. Distant objects, although distinctly seen, lose their value, in the long lapse of years, before he can attain them. But this defect, if indeed it may be called so, is happily supplied by emulation. To excel others in the same pursuit, is in itself a present good—it secures the immediate approbation of the teacher, and gratifies the natural love of praise in the pupil. It furnishes, in short, a child with the same motives to study as if he were at once to realize the actual benefits of knowledge, as enjoyed and appreciated in after life. To excite and keep alive this principle, and to apply it to the purposes of education, should therefore be a leading object in every school. In effecting this great end, it is necessary that the school be divided into classes; each class containing all the scholars, who are of the same proficiency, and engaged in the same pursuits. It is only by classifying children according to their proficiency and pursuits, that they can be compared together, and their relative merits distinguished. Solitary study should never be allowed; it affords no opportunity for comparison, and consequently there can be no

* Much as we approve of the general views expressed in other parts of this pamphlet, we doubt the propriety and the advantage of incitements to emulation; and we cannot but dissent from the opinions expressed in this paragraph. *Editor.*

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emulation. The great advantage of a public over a private school consists in the opportunity afforded by the former of classifying children and comparing them with each other—the principle of classification, therefore, is of the utmost importance in all public schools, and is, indeed, the basis of every plan of public instruction, which aims to excite the emulation of scholars. When children are properly arranged in their several classes, they should be kept, as much as possible, in comparison with each other. Under the present imperfect system the only opportunity for such comparison is at the recitation of their lessons. But under the Lancasterian system the opportunity of comparison is much greater, as it makes but one business both of study and recitation. And it is this circumstance, more perhaps than any other, which constitutes the peculiar excellence of that system. In this respect the present system must be acknowledged to be inferior: but its defects may, in some measure, be established by a more strict attention to the comparison of scholars with each other, when engaged in recitation. But whatever be the comparison, it is essential to the great end in view, that each one be rewarded according to his merits. There must be a peculiar mark of excellence, to distinguish the higher from the lower, and the middling from the lowest rewards: such as children value at school, are cheap and easily obtained. It is not so much the intrinsic worth that they regard in a badge, as the evidence it carries of their merit. The natural and most obvious mode of reward, is by taking precedence in their class. This simple distinction should never be omitted; and, in addition to it, certificates of approbation should be given by the teacher, to be shown to parents and friends, and preserved as memorials of merit. Such rewards are within the power of every teacher; and, if he be disposed to do his duty, he will not fail to resort to them on all occasions. It would, also, be well to offer as rewards of extraordinary merit, some favourite book, or other present of esteemed value. And if the trustees of the school district should make it a condition with their teacher to expend, out of his wages, or salary, a small sum in the purchase of books or other presents, to be distributed as rewards to the best scholars, it is believed that no principle of the school law would be violated; and although the wages of the teacher might on that account, be so much the higher, there could not be a doubt that the most ample returns would recompence the expenditure.

To exercise the *reasoning* faculties of youth, by giving them

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clear and distinct ideas of what they study, and accustoming them to a practical application of their acquirements, is another object, in the mode of instruction to be adopted, not less essential than that of rendering study voluntary and agreeable. Knowledge is lasting in proportion as it is the result of thought and reflection—and proceeding from that source, it takes a strong hold on the mind of the learner, and becomes, as it were, identified with his existence; while its value is clearly in proportion to the facility of the learner in applying it to its practical purposes. The first object of instruction, therefore, should be to present, in a clear and distinct light, what is to be learned; and to address it directly to the understanding of the learner; and, in the next place, when knowledge is acquired, it should be made available to the possessor, by learning to apply it to practical purposes. There is, in this respect, a radical defect in the education of most children—they are not made to study understandingly; and to apply what they learn to practice; their knowledge is too apt to be mechanical—a mere matter of rote; lodged only in the memory. To remedy this defect, in the common mode of education, is the chief object of what is called the '*Pestalozzian* method, which consists in exercising the reasoning faculties, more than is done by the ordinary plan of instruction; and in making the process of learning much less a matter of rote. This it effects by the exclusion of all books, and an entire reliance upon explanation and examination in the teacher's presence.' This however, may be justly considered an extreme which ought to be avoided; but the common method, is not less an extreme, on the other hand. In the Pestalozzian method study is the constant exercise of the inventive faculties: being nothing else than a kind of dialogue, between the teacher and his pupil, suggested by the actual, or supposed presence of some real object; while, in the common method, little or no exercise of invention is required: every thing is learned from books; and if *their* contents be well rehearsed, or the problems they contain be solved according to the given rules, the pupil is thought to have done his duty:—as to the application of his knowledge to actual practice, that is rarely considered as a necessary part of education, but is commonly left for him to see to himself, in after life, when he enters the world as a man of business. In the former system every thing depends on practice alone; in the latter on theory. To preserve a middle course, by combining the practice and theory together, is doubtless the perfection of education. The *books* used in the common

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schools, are necessary to secure more correct information, than can be expected from the extemporaneous conversations of the teacher, in the Pestalozzian plan. But when the knowledge they contain is learned, however accurately, by the pupil, unless he can apply it to cases, as they occur in practice, it will avail him but little; he will indeed have learned, but without knowing how to use it, his learning will be without value. Knowledge, and the application of it, are distinct objects, and although they ought never to be separated there is no such connexion between them, that one necessarily follows the other. It is the business of education to instruct in both alike; to combine theory and practice, as mutual correctives of each other. To apply the general principles, here advanced, to the different branches of study pursued in schools, would require more of detail than the limits of this report will permit. The superintendent will therefore proceed to give some general account of the recent improvements in education under the name of the Lancasterian system.

The following summary of that system has been digested and prepared from an approved Manual of the British and Foreign School Society, which is believed to contain a more detailed account of the plan, than the original exposition published by the author.

'The whole system is founded upon a principle of order and discipline, by which the pupils, under the inspection of the master, pursue a course of mutual instruction; those who have made the greatest progress in reading, writing, and arithmetic, transmitting the knowledge they possess to others less advanced than themselves. Those pupils have the title of Monitors; they have the right of selecting one or more Assistant Monitors, if the number of children entrusted to them be too large. Thus by employing the children as teachers, in carrying forward instruction in every class, a single master may superintend a school of five hundred or a thousand scholars.

'In the first organization of a school, there must be a division into classes; those pupils being placed together, whose abilities or proficiency are nearly equal, either in reading or arithmetic. From this circumstance proceeds two different classifications; when the children are engaged in reading, the pupils of every class are placed according to their proficiency, in reading; and when they are engaged in ciphering, the pupils of each class are placed according to their proficiency in arithmetic. The consequence of this arrangement is, that the pupils

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of a class of reading or arithmetic, are on a level, they have the same degree of knowledge to acquire, and the same duties to fulfil in order to qualify them for a superior class.

'In reading, the whole school is divided into eight classes—the 1st class learn the alphabet—the 2d class, words and syllables of two letters—3d class, words and syllables of three letters—4th class, words and syllables of four letters—5th class, reading lessons of one syllable—6th class, reading lessons of two syllables—7th class, read the Testament—8th class, read the Bible, and are a selection of the best readers.

'Elementary instruction, as it respects arithmetic, has been divided into ten clases. In each of these classes, the pupil learns a single rule of arithmetic, either simple or compound.

'In the new system, writing, in the first instance, is rather employed as a means of instruction, than an object. The children learn to read syllables and words, by writing on their slates, before they read them upon the boards or in their books; thus they learn to read and write at the same time; consequently there is no particular classification in writing.

'The time required to learn reading, writing, and arithmetic, by children of a good common capacity, and about eight years of age, need not exceed two years. Some children have finished their studies in a much shorter time.'

On the three methods employed in teaching the several branches of Elementary Education.

1*st*. *Dictation*.—The children are seated upon the forms of the school, and arranged according to the gradation of the eight classes—Every class is superintended by a Monitor. If the class comprises two forms the monitor chooses an assistant or inspector, to superintend the second form; and if his class is still larger, an additional inspector for every form, (the number of children under the care of a single monitor, ought not to exceed nine or ten.) The signal for beginning the exercises being given, by the monitor general, the monitors of the classes dictate the words which the children are to write on their slates. The monitor of the 8th class, having to give out the longest word, begins first; the monitor of the 7th class next, and so down to the 2d. When the monitors have each dictated six words or syllables, they inform the master by turning to him that side of the telegraph, (a small board with the number of the class on one side, and the letters EX, (examined) on the other,)

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which presents the number of the class. The master gives a signal to the pupils to show their slates, and to the monitors to inspect them. The latter first inspect the slates of the assistant monitors or inspectors, and afterwards, the slates of their respective pupils. The correction being finished, the monitors and their assistants return to their places, the former turn towards the master that side of the Telegraph which shows the EX, in order to inform him that the class is examined, and ready to begin a new lesson. In the mode of dictation, here described, the word is first pronounced aloud by the monitor, who then deliberately gives out its letters and syllables, which the whole class write on their slates. There is another mode, called silent dictation, which is done without uttering the words aloud, but by pointing to the letters which compose them, on the alphabet board. This is an improvement on the former method, and has been tried with success.

2d. *Reading from Boards.*—The pupils stand in semicircles round the walls of the school room. The semicircles are composed of nine or ten children, superintended by a reading monitor, who is sometimes called Draft Monitor, from the circumstance of the children being drawn out in drafts. The monitor holds in his hand the lesson board, or has it suspended before him on the wall, in such a manner as to be distinctly seen by each child. He then points out the words or sentences, to be read in succession, and requires the children to read them from the board one after the other, as he directs. The children are made to correct each other's mistakes, and always take precedence, or place, of each other, according to merit. This secures the attention of the whole, while only one is engaged in reading from the board. It is an invariable rule that when a child makes a mistake, and is corrected by others, he is to repeat the word, or sentence, until he can do it correctly. The lessons from which the children read, or spell, are printed in large letters, upon detached sheets, the union of which forms a book, for a whole school of five hundred or a thousand children.

3d. *Interrogation.*—The pupils remain standing in semicircles. At a signal given by the master, the reading monitors take away the lesson boards from the view of the children, and interrogate them on the subject of their lessons. The monitors pronounce a word, which the pupils are to spell from recollection; or read a sentence, and then question the pupil on it. In arithmetic the same proceedings take place. In this method the pupils

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also correct each other's mistakes, and take precedence or place, according to their merit.

Discipline.

The principle of discipline is in this system, mutual inspection or superintendence. Accordingly it is the duty of the monitors to superintend their classes, and maintain good order. The monitors are either subordinate or general—the former undertake the instruction of their separate classes, and maintain order among the pupils entrusted to them—the latter take no part in the instruction of classes, but maintain order throughout the school. The subordinate monitors are: 1st, monitors of classes—2d, assistant or inspection monitors—3d, reading monitors—4th, monitors of arithmetic. General monitors are: 1st, General monitors of order—2d, monitor general of reading—3d, monitor general of arithmetic.

As it is the duty of the monitors of classes to teach the spelling book by dictation, they should be chosen from the best writers in the seventh or eighth classes. Every class has two monitors, who divide the labour between them; and while one superintends the class, the other continues at his studies—the number of monitors of classes is therefore sixteen.

The assistant monitors are to take a part with the monitors of classes in the inspection of writing, &c. They are always chosen from the pupils of the class to which they belong, and the choice is made by the monitor. One assistant monitor is chosen for each form occupied by the same class.

The monitors for reading are to teach the pupils from the boards containing the spelling book and reading lessons; consequently they are to be chosen from the best readers in the seventh or eight class; each class has several reading monitors, according to the number of drafts in it.

The monitors of arithmetical classes may be chosen from the pupils who have made the greatest progress in arithmetic in each class. For this branch of elementary instruction, is so simplified by means of keys, that a pupil who can read, may teach the four rules of arithmetic, even if he is unacquainted with them himself.

The Monitor General of Order, has a general superintendence over the whole school, particularly over the subordinate and other monitors.

The Monitor General of Reading, is the best reader in the school, and his particular duty is to superintend the reading classes and their monitors.

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The Monitor General of Arithmetic, is the best scholar in arithmetic, and his province is to oversee the cyphering classes. His duties as well as those of the monitor general of reading, are often performed by the monitor general of order.

All monitors are responsible to the master, for the good order and regularity of the several departments over which they preside.

How far this system, the leading principles of which have been explained, can be introduced into our common country schools with advantage and propriety, remains to be considered.

It is obvious, on the slightest view, that the advantages of this system are most conspicuous in large schools; and indeed the only advantage it was originally supposed to possess over the common method, consisted in its enabling a single teacher to superintend the education of a greater number of children at a much less expense. This essential advantage it undoubtedly possesses, in as great a degree as has ever been ascribed to it; and in very large schools it rises above all competition. But it has also been found, that some of its principles may be applied with great advantage, to any school, however small may be the number of children taught in it. Such in particular is the institution of monitors, for the preservation of order, which secures to the teacher all the benefits of common informers, without any of their odium; and such also is the principle of teaching spelling and writing together, which makes the different operations of the learner subservient to each other. The association also of intellectual exertion, with manual exercise, is another principle in the system, not less important, nor less applicable to every school. In respect to these, and some other particulars, every school ought to assume somewhat of the Lancasterian character. It is not, however, expected, nor is it certain that it would be desirable, that the system should be introduced into the primary schools in all its details. In cities or large villages, where more children can be assembled at one school than can be conveniently taught by one person on the common plan, there can be no doubt of the propriety of adopting it in its full extent. But where the number of children is not greater than a single teacher can instruct, the occasion for many parts of the system ceases to exist; and its entire adoption, in such cases, cannot, therefore, be urged as necessary or advisable.

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Self Improvement an important part of Female Education.

[The following observations will, we trust, prove interesting to parents, as well as to female readers generally. The subject, indeed, is one which comes properly within the scope of parental attention, and can be taken up effectually in no other way.

Our contributor will, we hope, resume the topics now introduced, and complete the improvements suggested, by furnishing sufficient directions for a course of personal application and improvement, adapted to the circumstances of female life.]

To the Editor.

The essays upon the education of females which have lately appeared in your journal, have so entirely met my views, that I have felt desirous to have all points of the subject discussed by the same hand,—and this must be my apology for offering to you the suggestions of my own mind, upon a subject that has long deeply interested me.

I delight in the spirit of improvement that characterizes the age, and I do not shrink from innovation. But if we do not reverence institutions and customs, and modes of thinking that are old, because they are old; we should also reserve to ourselves the liberty to condemn what is new, notwithstanding it is new. With the greatest possible respect for the exertions of modern times in the literary education of females, I yet look back upon that much compassionated race 'our grandmothers,' who, according to the cant of the present day, 'had no advantages,' with a reverential sentiment of regret. This may surprise some persons, but not those who have in their presence or in recollection, (as a great many have,) the elegance, the high refinement, the dignity of mind, the unaffected modesty, of that better class of females who have given character to this part of our country, and are every day passing from the earth, in the mild glory of hallowed old age. I would not take away a single source of improvement. I would not close up an avenue to knowledge, which modern education has opened to the females of the present day; but I think it is necessary for us to remember, that in changing modes of education, we are ever in danger of leaving out much that is important; that we are in danger of losing in some particulars what we gain in others; and that what is gained may be very well, but may not be a compensation for what is lost.

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There is no reason why any thing should be lost. Because literary education is very much attended to, there is no reason for neglecting moral education; indeed there is more necessity for turning attention especially towards it: 'As we build high, we should sink deep.'

You appear to feel all that should be felt on this point. Your views of the education of females distinctly express that they are to be educated as moral beings, and in direct reference to their influence in domestic life, and to the cultivation of power over the affections of those around them. You have touched upon many hindrances to the accomplishment of this education, nor have laid too great stress upon the injury to manners, and even to character, from the uncouth furniture of school rooms, unhealthy intensity of application, restrained and artificial modes of study. My doubt is whether a reform in all these things will be sufficient to answer all the desirable ends of female education,—without more *retirement* of life than is afforded by the present mode of 'going to school' until the time of 'going into company.'

It has been thought necessary to say so much about the intellectual equality of the sexes, that the fact is sometimes lost sight of, that there is a great difference between the minds of the sexes. We may believe that intellectual truth is the end of all minds, and yet to be attained in a peculiar route by the female mind; or, at least, under a peculiar aspect of circumstances. We would throw boys into the world, not indeed excluding them from domestic scenes, and the cherishing atmosphere of affection, but placing them where they can combine with these, contact with all kinds of people and all diversities of scene; for their active duties on the stage of existence will lead them to this contact, and it is desirable that their minds should be formed on views of life which they will not afterwards have reason to feel were confined; such a feeling being apt to give a fatal shock to the whole character by introducing a distrust of all the love of youth,—its generous sentiments, as well as those intellectual results which were only wrong because made on confined data. But intellectual beauty is the prerogative of woman rather than intellectual force; and danger, which is the most productive atmosphere to the latter, is surely not genial to the former. The springs of beauty are in the depths of nature, to be explored only in solitude, and to be led over the mind to refresh it in hours of composure and reflection. I will venture to say there is no woman in the sphere of our acquaintance, of whose mind intellectual beauty can be called the characteristic, whose

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education was not, in a great degree, private, whose mind had not had opportunity to unfold in solitude; or in a domestic life removed at some period from the influences of 'company.'

Of that venerable class of females before alluded to, there are yet lingering upon the stage many examples. We have better linguists, better arithmeticians, better naturalists; but have we more delicacy of taste, more grace of physical and mental movement, more of that form of intellectual power so peculiarly necessary to the exigences of a female's duty in life,—whatever be her station,—I mean the power of resolving all her faculties and knowledge into one mass, (as it were,) which, acting like the senses *by tact*, is, 'by a happy figure,' says a modern writer, 'termed SENSE?'

It is only, however, of the latter part of the time devoted to the education of females that I would speak, when I say it should be more private. There are innumerable disadvantages in *children's* not going to school. They are apt to lose spirits and health, and above all, flexibility and gracefulness of character, from not becoming early familiar with others of their own age. It is well for them early in life to realize that they are units in the great mass of society, that they may perceive the absurdity of vanity and egotism. But the question which I wish to propose to you is this, whether every good purpose of going to school may not be answered, without devoting as many years to it, as are felt to be necessary for boys. Does not intercourse in such large numbers, when continued through those years, in which all that is peculiar in the female mind begins to develope, produce coarseness? Women were not destined for public life, for intercourse and struggle with a great many persons; and their constitutional temperament, therefore, is made to render them liable to impressions, and ready for confidential intercourse; and what is necessary to their charm in the situation in which they ultimately find themselves, renders them comparatively dangerous to each other. For the finer feelings shrink from the possibility of rebuff or of ridicule; and each one endeavours to repress all that is the most beautiful and individual, and endeavours to conform to a general standard, since, which, it is too often fixed by the most presuming, must necessarily be low in all the most important points of female character. And thus it is those most highly gifted in feminine traits, who are in danger of denying what is hardly short of the inspiration of heaven,—in *coarseness* of character, or escaping it in *levity*. Moreover, is it advantageous to the cultivation of that taste for domestic life, which is indispensable to the worth and happiness of a woman, to have

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the constant excitement of so many objects, at that very period of life when the buoyancy of health, and the vivacity of the imagination, would 'people solitude,' and must multiply to bewildering excess the numbers that constitute a school. It is the present mode for girls to continue at school until they go into a round of company. Connexions with a great many companions at school are continued almost by necessity, and an immense acquaintance presents innumerable temptations to dissipation. An interval of some years, passed in self cultivation, would break up these connexions, and acquaintance would be selected. None of the advantages of society would be lost. Indeed, the true taste for interesting society would be cultivated, and woman in the meridian of life, instead of being dull from having 'run too fast' through the pleasures of *company*, would enter with zest and freshness of soul into that intercourse of minds, which is most interesting to the most intelligent; and, what is important, would have something to communicate from the treasury of experience formed in the course of years by observation and sensibility. Another advantage of an interval for self cultivation between school days, and that period when all the holiest responsibilities of the sex are assumed, is, that the possible errors of early education may be remedied. It has been well remarked that the images which throng the infant mind are the loveliest, and are liable to exercise a strong effect upon the character for ever. False associations, however, and the mistakes of early education generally, are not absolutely irremediable. In that period of life when a sense of individuality and independence comes, the strong hour of youthful vigour, there is an opportunity for a mental regeneration. The character is often known to take at this period a new direction—and if left to itself it will, I think, take a natural direction—it will take that direction which will fully develope its individuality. Now all the formalities of a school are calculated to repress this development, to fasten for ever the character of infancy by continuing the chain of associations uninterrupted, and to render the character tame and inefficient. In female education, this is a consideration of importance; for besides that the female mind, from its delicacy, is liable to be partially injured by all cultivation but self cultivation, we must remember that the entire revolution of the actual circumstances of life, in the case of most boys, who go forth into the world to act for themselves, the great changes, in very many instances, which occur in their lives, from the fluctuation of political circumstances, and the circumstances of business, give them opportunities of being created over again, as it were,

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renewing existence under different principles of action, and neutralizing or escaping entirely the influences of that very early stage of education. But girls, whose lives seldom exhibit such changes of circumstance, generally show through life the effects of early education; and the form of a school room, an artificial manner of acquiring knowledge, and especially the motives under which the mind acts, during the time from seven years of age to fourteen, are productive of effects which a woman very generally, perhaps, carries in her mind to her grave. It is true there are dangers from within, which are developed in a comparative retirement; but these are not so great as those from without, for the human mind has a natural tendency to do justice to itself, and, moreover, the dangers from within which are tendencies to exaggeration of feeling and exclusiveness of views, must be previously guarded against by a free intercourse in early life with other children, habits of exercise as unrestrained as circumstances will possibly admit, and such a thorough ground work of education, as will lead the mind into the various departments of literature and science.

And after all these considerations, the question recurs with increasing interest, can this foundation be laid in a shorter space of time than is now devoted to it? It seems to me that it can; if but the ground work of education is aimed at. Now the elements of good instruction are not the outlines of sciences communicated to the pupil: to commence education rightly, is to set the mind going with interest, in various directions. The cultivation of the habit of attention, generally, and then exciting the taste powerfully on various subjects, is the true ground work of education. Cannot this be done more effectually and in a shorter period than it is at present done? Is not a great deal of the force of the mind spent in vain, even on the present improved methods? and would not a sense of the necessity of shortening the period devoted to going to school, develope greater effectiveness in the methods of teaching? I would not have any hurry, any artificial stimulus. But might not the succession of studies be so arranged as to make every moment of real labour, count in the acquisition desired?

Could a deep impression be made on the mind of society of the advantage of girls being at home, from fourteen to eighteen years of age; still, would the effect be to lower the standard of intellectual attainment?—would it not be to throw more efficiency into that education which the mind would receive previous to that period; and to enlist the talent which is now so extensively engaged upon this subject, at a period of the mind when

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it would present fewer obstacles to the influences of a high kind of education? The fact is, that on the present system, a year or two is necessary after a girl goes into one of the higher schools, to do away the actual bad habits of the intellect, contracted under teachers who, with the best intentions in the world, are yet incapable of taking a true view of the mind; or if it so happens that the intellect has not been sufficiently exercised to have *any* habits in study, scarcely a less time is necessary to awaken it from the comparative stupor to which inactivity had consigned it, and to deliver the mind from the influence of certain mechanical motions, called exercises of memory. Perhaps many persons have yet to learn that a child, whose intellectual habits are forming, needs more than at any period of its education, the watchful superintendence of the highest order of minds that can be devoted to the subject of education. It is only the highest order of minds that are capable of understanding human nature on its most general principles, yet this understanding of human nature is most essential to the performance of this duty. It is, generally speaking, only the highest order of minds that have a very delicate sensibility to individual character as it exists, yet in the germ, in the mind of a young child. But surely this is preeminently necessary to success in evolving that individuality of character which is the charm of mind, and must be respected by those who would be influential in producing a graceful mental character.

I would observe, in closing, that it has not escaped the most common observer, that the female mind attains the balance of its powers much earlier in life than that of the other sex. And why this difference in nature, if Providence has not made a different set of circumstances to form round the one from what forms round the other, evolving different and peculiar duties? It seems to me that every indication of nature on this subject, as well as on every other, is to be attended to with religious reverence, and will lead to true views and correct methods. Whatever speculations there may be, as to the extent and the design of this difference to which we have referred, few will deny that it does exist, and it gives facilities to the accomplishment of a plan of school education, in a much shorter time than is now given to it. I had intended to give some definite details of such a course as I think would serve the purpose of going to school, but I have already made this communication too long; and in the hope that some abler mind will express itself upon the subject, will desist from pursuing it farther at present.

E. N. Q.

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FRENCH SOCIETY FOR ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

[The diminished size of our last No., rendered it impossible to return to the Report of this interesting and beneficent institution. Our readers, we have no doubt, will enter, with still more pleasure, into the topics now introduced; as they form a striking illustration of the inseparable alliance of good instruction and moral improvement. The children whose education is the object of the Society for Instruction, would, it ought not to be forgotten, have been utterly neglected, but for the exertions of the society; and instead of increasing the number of good men and useful citizens, in mature life, might, in many instances, have proved pests to society, and victims of misery.

The document of which we now give the second part, furnishes, moreover, another proof, that, for the economical and regular instruction of large numbers of pupils, the system of mutual instruction, when rightly understood and applied, is preferable to any other.]

I shall now pass, gentlemen, to the second part of the operations of the society, which may be comprised under the name of

External labours, or labours in the Schools.

The first establishment was founded in Paris, in an obscure house in the rue Saint-Jean-de-Beauvais: it comprised, then, only twelve children, under the direction of M. Martin, whose zeal, mildness, and perseverance, surmounted many obstacles. At the end of a few weeks, his school showed the happy results of the system. His modest establishment was then transferred to the church of the College de Lisieux, where it remains. A hundred and fifty children were received there. From that time, it has been easy to judge of the perfection of this system, and of the admirable order of the classes. We see the work advancing simultaneously; order reigning in the movements, pleasure in the sudies; the intelligence of the children developing; the fear of blame fixing their attention; the desire of success doubling their faculties.

In the space of a few months, fifty children, before utterly ignorant, have learned to read the syllabic tables with facility; thirty others have learned to write in large and small running hand; the pupils of the sixth, seventh, and eighth classes, have made rapid progress in arithmetic; several among them have

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gone even as far as combinations; the others know the four simple and complex rules. You may judge of their progress by the slates on the *bureau*, which indicate the time they have studied. Thirty eight pupils have quitted the school, to enter on trades, or to be monitors in new elementary schools. The ages and rank of these children are of no importance in regard to their comrades: it is often the youngest that directs the class, more frequently still it is the poorest.

If these children's progress in instruction is so rapid, the change effected in their habits and character is not less surprising. A new being seems to have developed in them; from seven o'clock in the morning, they are seen besieging the door of the school and collecting round it. It has been very difficult to confine their attendance to the proper hours; and it is very rarely that any of them have failed, notwithstanding the rigour of the season. Satisfaction shines in their countenances; a diligent attention, and constant occupation prevent the disgust and weariness so common in schools, and especially that conversation among children, which is such an obstacle to their progress, and so hurtful to their manners; the fear of incurring blame is especially impressed upon them. Those persons who have visited the school, have had an opportunity of judging of the mortification and sorrow of those children who are ranged upon their knees, or who remain standing near the master's table, during the exercises of school. This is increased, when strangers are spectators of it. Two facts among many others, deserve to be related, because they show the effect produced by the intercourse of children, and the principles which they acquire. A theft was committed in the school two months since. It was the first instance. A child was put under arrest, and judged by his comrades. The monitors were then constituted jury by the instructer, to hear the depositions and defence of the accused. The latter, having been convicted, was going to be condemned, when, struck with remorse and bursting into tears, he confessed his fault, asked pardon of his comrades, and showed the most sincere repentance. This scene, this example, this public shame, perhaps, saved society from a criminal, and gave it a virtuous man. This fact, shows the impression made by want of principle. The other relates to love of goodness, and is not less remarkable. The mother of a monitor of the reading class, came one day, to excuse her son for not having attended school on account of a dreadful misfortune which had just befallen her. Some thieves had got into their room, and

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carried away the little they possessed, so that nothing was left except what was upon their persons. This event was no sooner known among the other monitors, than they were desirous to assist their unfortunate companion. They requested permission to open the trunk belonging to the school, where some strangers had deposited, a few days before, the sum of fifteen francs, to be distributed, as a reward, to the different monitors. They declared to the instructer that they would transfer this sum to their companion. But the sum of fifteen francs appearing to them too small, they clubbed together, and in a short time, collected twenty one francs and fifty sous. Immediately a deputation of three monitors, having M. Martin at their head, went to the dwelling of the poor woman. The tears of the mother and child, were the only answers, the only thanks they could give to their young benefactors, who shared in their emotion. This scene must have recompensed M. Martin for much trouble! Excellent man! what reward could be more worthy of you? Who could be more worthy of such a reward? And would it be possible, gentlemen, for children imbued with these principles, manifesting such sentiments, to show themselves, at the end of a few years, unworthy of each other, and having nothing superiour to those unfortunate beings wandering in the public squares, and seduced into vicious practices by ignorance and idleness? No, gentlemen, no: those who begin thus, continue and end thus. Those who already know how to submit to the laws of a school, will easily submit to the laws of society; those who already develope so much intelligence, will not be behind hand in national industry. In a word, these children, (and we may conceive sweet hope from it,) will be at some future day, what they already seem to be, intelligent workmen, virtuous citizens, sensible men.

And do you not also trust, gentlemen, that this inclination to goodness, this love of study, will have a salutary influence, even upon the families of these children? The facts which we have just related, may have produced more effect in the quarter where they took place, than many exhortations or measures of restraint. The reformation of a great nation is effected as much by examples as by laws, and by persuasion more than by fear.

I shall not speak to you, gentlemen, of the religious instruction that these children receive; you know that, in the delibertions of the 15th of November, and the 15th of December, your council of administration decided that the schools, established by the society, should have the same religious exercises as

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those which are established in schools submitted to the administrative authority; that on Sunday and festivals, the children should be conducted to church by their master, and should have in their hands books of catholic worship designed for the primary schools; it will be sufficient for me to add, that these children by their conduct at church, are the objects of public edification. Your council of administration, equally penetrated with the desire, in their efforts to do good, to observe the rules prescribed by authority, has decided that the schools founded by you, should be submitted to the administration of general instruction. Your committee have consequently taken the steps in regard to the royal council of public instruction, commanded by the regulations, and have received from the respectable functionaries who compose this body, precious testimonies of esteem and interest.

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The establishment of these different schools, gentlemen, has made known exactly the expenses which they occasion, their first expense, as well as their annual maintenance. Paris being, generally speaking, more expensive than the provinces, the results which have been found, consequently apply to all France. Thus, the first expense of a school for five hundred children, generally costs, for benches, desks, slates, and tables, only 1120 fr. the interest of which, by the year, would be 56 fr. to add to the annual expenses.

These annual expenses consist of the salary of the master, at

the highest - - - - -	1200 fr.
Fuel, - - - - -	200
Pencils of tale and replacing of slates, - -	200
Record books, pens, ink, paper, - -	130
Pay of the monitors, - - - -	200
Expenses for repairs, - - - -	70
Total, - - -	2000 fr.

Which makes the education of each child 4 fr. a year. It would only be 2 fr. if the number of children was a thousand; for it would only be adding to the sum of 2000 fr. a new interest of 56 fr. for the increase of the expenses of the first establishment. But, at the present time, it generally costs, in France, from 18 to 20 fr. at least, for the annual education of children; and this is doubled in consequence of imperfect instruction, and the time which is lost by it. The proportion, then, between the new and old methods is not 2 to 18, but from 2 to 36. This

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calculation, applied to the actual expense of gratuitous schools in Paris, offers the following result. There are in this city about fifty thousand children who are not able to procure the means of education. Beside this number, ten thousand are brought up in a hundred and twenty gratuitous schools, at the expense of the convents in the city of Paris, and cost 180,000 fr. annually, which makes the education of one child cost 18 fr., or as we have said above, 36. This sum of 180,000 fr., would be sufficient, then, and more than sufficient, upon our plan, for the whole population, and for no individual to be inferior to another in useful knowledge, and in all that concerns morality and religious instruction. In summing up, these, gentlemen, either the labours of the society, or those which are connected with its institution, we see four establishments entirely formed within six months, and able to serve as models and nurseries to all that may be founded in future; five hundred children already receiving education upon the new system; thirty masters or mistresses, prepared to be sent into the departments; the number of subscribers increasing, in less than six months, to four hundred and sixty, and presenting the most illustrious names, joined to those of the good men that are always sure to be found where they can be useful; the protection of the civil authorities, of the respectable members of the clergy, and the proof which we have acquired, that this mode of instruction suits the French character. Is there an institution which has made such rapid progress in so short a time; which has produced happier results at so little expense, or given room for greater hopes? And yet, gentlemen, at what a time did yon commence this useful undertaking? In the midst of troubles and revolutions; when our country saw all its former miseries renewed, and the too short happiness which it had enjoyed, effaced. It is amid the noise of combats that you have founded an institution of mildness and of peace! It is in the midst of general distress that you have made an appeal to public generosity; it was at the moment when disapprobation was stamped upon many innovations, that you presented yourselves with the boldest of them all. Gentlemen, these obstacles have not arrested your success; because your motives were pure, your zeal ardent, and your institution irreproachable. In the midst of inquietude and dangers, the members of your council of administration have never ceased to assemble; they have been faithful to their engagement to humanity, and they have often felt the consolation of ending those days of misfortune and mourning by an act of beneficence.

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Notwithstanding all our efforts, gentlemen, notwithstanding even our success, some uneasiness was manifested concerning the direction and aim of our establishment, some clouds hung over the cradle of this institution; but they were soon dispersed; we had among our number some of those friends of humanity, those noble protectors of every useful institution, whose knowledge is our security, and whose virtues are our guard. I would name them, if it were possible that any could be at a loss to know them; they have been our interpreters, I will not say our defenders—they were not necessary near respectable persons who only wished to know the truth; soon the ministers of the clergy, and the heads of the university, witnesses of our labours, became sensible of their utility, and were doubtless eager to second them. With such auxiliaries, what shall we not be able to undertake? what ought we not to hope?

This excellent system needs no further proof; but it yet has need of support; and you, gentlemen, who were its founders, ought to be its support, and procure it new resources. This is no longer an uncertain attempt, a vague theory for the good of humanity; it is a positive result, in which the sacrifices of each one easily and immediately attain their end. Its success in Paris is nearly certain—thanks to the zeal of the worthy magistrate who has the administration of this city, and to that of the beneficent persons we have mentioned! We must now direct our efforts to the provinces; there we should call upon the good citizens and enlightened proprietors to join with us, and induce them to send for some of our children to found similar establishments.

Indeed, gentlemen, what sweeter occupation can we offer to charitable persons who dwell in the country; what new benefit does not our institution place in their hands? Do you not already seem to see the children of the villages assembling round the neighbouring castle, and entering some ancient hall that has been prepared for their school room? The benefactress soon appears, she assists in their lessons, enjoys their progress, applauds the zeal of some, consoles the weakness of others, anticipates with pleasure a tranquil future; for it will repose upon a virtuous generation. Elementary instruction has been for twenty years totally abandoned in France; other ideas, other successes, other pleasures, occupied the public mind and flattered national pride; the moment has arrived to restore to our country its glory and its happiness, by making it forget its victories for a time, and repose from the triumphs of arms, by the

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more real and the sweeter conquests of industry; and is it not also glorious for a people to be enlightened and happy? It is proved that education in the inferior classes, among our neighbours, has tended to diminish prodigiously the number of thefts and crimes, and to put an end, in a great measure, to the use of strong liquors—why should it not be followed with the same results among us? Many years will elapse, doubtless, before we can judge of it, or deliver ourselves up to this interesting speculation; but what already inspires us with so sweet a hope, will be a consolation to many in their old age; they will reap the fruit of our efforts; and besides, gentlemen, are not those children, whom we bring up, destined to surround our children, and like them to bless our enemies, if we fulfil towards them also the duties of fathers? Your benefits already constitute the charm of their childhood, and promise to be the blessing of their future lives. Oh, gentlemen! continue a work so well begun; spare for its success no trouble, no sacrifice; form virtuous citizens for the state; enlightened cultivators for our fields; faithful subjects for the king, who deigns to take a particular interest in our institution, and who has just given us a proof of it. Let us persevere in such sentiments, gentlemen; and may we every year assemble in this place, read a new and long list of moral and intellectual beings redeemed from ignorance, of innocent beings enlisted in the cause of religion and morality.

REVIEWS.

A Grammar of Rhetoric and Polite Literature, comprehending the Principles of Language and Style, the Elements of Taste and Criticism, with Rules for the Study of Composition and Eloquence; illustrated by appropriate Examples, selected chiefly from the British Classics: for the use of Schools or Private Instruction. By Alexander Jamieson, LL. D. Fourth Edition. New-Haven. 1826. 12mo. pp. 300.

The application of criticism to a standard work is thought by some a fruitless labour. To such of our readers as entertain this idea, our present attempt may appear both useless and pre-

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suming. The strictures of an anonymous contributor to a periodical publication, can hold, we are aware, but an humble place in public estimation, when they are weighed against the authority of a work which is studied in several of the highest literary institutions of our country, and which has been so extensively adopted, as to exhaust three editions within a very few years.

We have no diffidence, however, in bringing such a work under review; since we are not ambitious to have our pages invested with the authority of a literary tribunal, but wish rather to succeed in inducing parents and instructers to read the books which we review, to think for themselves, and form their own decisions on the merits of the works, to which we invite their attention.

Books of established character, and in extensive use, are those which are exerting the most powerful influence, whether good or evil, on the interests of education. They are, therefore, the most important of any, when considered in connexion with the objects of our Journal. Their peculiar merits require a more earnest attention, and a fuller and more accurate statement; and, from the important rank which they hold, their defects, whatever these may be, become peculiarly pernicious, from the wide sphere into which they are necessarily introduced.

The latter consideration becomes highly important, when we remember how prone teachers are to follow, we might almost say with a servile fidelity, every idea of the author used as a class book. We earnestly wish that instructers of every rank were more in the habit of providing themselves with every accessible work on the departments of education which fall under their care, and by a diligent comparison of all, making themselves literally masters of their subjects. It would then be fully in their power, by their own instruction, to fill up the omissions, and rectify the mistakes which the necessarily imperfect efforts of a single mind will always entail on the best manual which can be selected in any branch of education. Several important advantages would result from a compliance with the above suggestion. Instructers would come to the discharge of their duties with vastly superior preparation, and would perform them with more confidence, with more ease, and with more pleasure. Pupils would not be left to the narrow circle of information contained in one book, but would be put in possession of all that is valuable in the best writers on the subject which they are studying. They would become accustomed, too, not to follow with

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a blind acquiescence every author they read; but to deliberate and carefully compare, and thus be trained to the independent exercise of their own faculties. Nor will learners thus fall into habits of doubting and caviling, if their teacher always takes care, in his own remarks, to set a good example of patient and candid investigation. To parents, the advantages of this method would be no less considerable. In the first place, a constant changing of school books, which is resorted to for the purpose of keeping up with recent improvements, would be rendered unnecessary. Standard works might continue in permanent use; the diligence and fidelity of the instructer being substituted for the present popular shifting from book to book. Children might use the school books which had been employed in teaching their parents; so that it would be in the power of the latter to aid the teacher, by assisting and guiding the former, or, at all events, to ascertain easily what progress was really made. A tax on education, and by no means a slight one, would, at the same time, be removed.

These remarks are not made from any objection to the excellent manual before us, but rather,—when we revert to the rapidity with which it is displacing Blair's Lectures,—from an apprehension that, in a few years, another work more recent than either, though perhaps not more meritorious, may take its place, and the toils of the teacher, and the expenditures of the parent, thus be unnecessarily increased. Publications embodying all recent and valuable information, and drawn up for the use of instructers, could easily be procured, and at no more expense to them than is occasioned by the present arrangement. To such books we should be sorry to be understood as making any objection. Variety here can do no harm, but, on the contrary, will be beneficial by its happy influence on the mind of the teacher, by the different points of view from which he will be brought to contemplate his subject, by the greater familiarity with it which he will thus acquire, and by the interesting lights in which he will be enabled to set it before his pupils. The grand disideratum in education is not so much the improvement of school books as of teachers.

Dr. Jamieson's work seems to us to be one which it is very desirable should become a permanent standard; not merely from its superiority to Blair's Lectures, but from the important consideration of its being furnished with a subsidiary book of exercises by the author of the rhetoric.* Dr. Blair's book of

* We hope that the publishers of the Rhetoric will speedily add this book of exercises to their valuable list of republished works.

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lectures has, (in our own practice in teaching,) always seemed imperfect from the want of a proper accompanying volume, containing a course of mental and practical exercises in rhetoric. Irving on composition is, we are aware, much used as a substitute for such a book. But this volume is too small; and the exercises it contains, afford practice in but one department of the subject. A more extensive work is required.

It is a fact somewhat singular that rhetoric, a branch of education so intimately connected with the business of professional life, is, as far as regards the necessary books, in the same condition nearly in which English grammar was, forty or fifty years ago, in many schools, when it used to be studied without the addition of any exercises in parsing. Rhetoric, like grammar, has its principles and rules. These must be applied if they are not to be classed with the lumber rather than the furniture of the mind. The learner, moreover, should be provided with the necessary preparatory *means* for training his thoughts to the application of the theory of rhetoric. For this purpose, a book of exercises in what may—from the want of a better name—be called rhetorical parsing, is as indispensable as a similar volume in grammar. Now Irving's book of exercises furnishes nothing more than a mere title of such a manual. Besides, it affords no scope for that introductory course of mental practice, which is indispensable to good composition.

To prepare a scholar for the exercise of composing, it is not enough that we furnish him with ample rules and directions. We must conduct him through the actual application of rules: we must show him the best method of complying with our directions. Our present books of exercises leave the learner at the stage of transposition and variety of expression. He receives no training on defining and distinguishing synonymes; unless he has the spirit to grapple with Crabbe, and teach himself: he has no exercises prescribed to him on the use of figures of speech: he is not accustomed to trace and arrange the divisions and subdivisions of a discourse.

In the learner's attempts to apply the rules of rhetoric in criticising the composition of others, so as to improve his own, there is a similar want of assistance. He has no guide to direct him to any definite course. He has no friendly hand to lead him upward from the merits of the phraseology, the structure, and the style, to the peculiar qualities of the thoughts, and the characteristic beauties or defects in any piece of composition. Yet all this mental discipline is essential to an intel-

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ligent use of the principles he has committed to memory, and to his own success in composing.

Dr. Jameison's book of exercises does not extend to a full course of mental training in rhetoric; but it approaches vastly nearer to such a thing than any other volume of this class. It contains much valuable exercise on the substance of the rhetoric; and this cirumstance constitutes, (we repeat it,) much of the value of the principal work, as a book adapted to the use of young persons.

The author gives the following statement of his plan, which we transcribe, in the hope of its influencing teachers who may not have seen the work, to procure and peruse it. The arrangement is certainly more systematic than that of Dr. Blair.

'The author has, throughout this work, first laid down the principles or rules of legitimate rhetoric; he has then given popular illustrations of these principles or rules; he has next confirmed his views in the illustrations by appropriate examples; and finally as these examples or illustrations furnished analyses or corollaries, he has endeavoured to make them tend to the improvement of the student's good taste, and of true ornament in composition.'

One advantage likely to result from the use of Dr. Jameison's Rhetoric has been mentioned. Another of great value is that this work excludes much of that matter which, in Dr. Blair's lectures, forms pleasant reading, but is too general or too philosophical for practical purposes.

The compiler of this treatise, though not so happy in an easy and graceful flow of language in his own composition, is very successful in the unpretending, explanatory, and familiar manner in which he conducts his pupils through the subject. Teachers who take the trouble of comparing such of their scholars as have used Blair's Lectures, with those who have used Jamieson's Rhetoric, will be abundantly satisfied of the superiority of the latter as a book of instruction. The students of Blair will exhibit, perhaps, satisfactory indications of their having caught something of the taste of that writer; but the students of Jameison will furnish answers to practical questions, in a manner much more definite and exact.

To instructers who adopt the method of oral lessons in conjunction with those which are presented in books, it will be found an easier task to amplify a 'corollary' or a 'scholium' of Jamieson, than to venture on the somewhat vague paragraphs of Blair. Works such as that of Jamieson, are useful for refer-

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ence and for the discussion of principles. But it is the living exertions of the teacher that are to be regarded as the chief thing in instruction; and here we think there is much room for improvement. This topic, however, is of sufficient importance to require a separate article.

An Address on Female Education, delivered, November 21st, 1827, at the opening of the Edifice erected for the accommodation of the Hartford Female Seminary. By T. H. GALLAUDET, Principal of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb. Published at the Request of the Trustees. Hartford. H. & F. J. Huntington. 1828. 8vo. pp. 34.

THIS pamphlet will be read with much interest by all who know under what auspices the Female Seminary in Hartford was commenced, or the obligations under which the author of the Address has laid every friend to the improvement of education. The institution, at the opening of which this address was spoken, is a liberal enterprise for female education, on a scale seldom if ever attempted hitherto, in this country. It offers to young women a pretty fair opportunity of keeping pace, in some measure, with those of the other sex, who enjoy the advantages of a classical education. Some account of this seminary was given on a former occasion.* Our present limits will not allow us to enlarge on this noble undertaking: we must leave it with the expression of our best wishes for its prosperity, and with the hope that this enlightened attempt to do justice to the female mind, will be so conducted as to refute the current vague assertions, that scientific and literary improvement are, of necessity, unpropitious to the cultivation of genuine refinement, or to the useful accomplishments of domestic life. The Hartford seminary will, we hope, long continue to usher into the various spheres of female activity, a succession of well informed, and agreeable women, prepared for an intelligent, efficient, and hallowed influence on human improvement.

There is a peculiar value in this address, as proceeding from a mind long accustomed to extensive and enlightened views of education, and from a practical instructer, whose observation and skill are by no means limited to the particular departments

* Vol. II. p. 219.

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in which he is now so successfully occupied. In his pamphlet on a seminary for teachers, Mr. Gallaudet was the first, we believe, in this country, to direct public attention, in a definite way, to an object so important to the improvement of instruction. The same practical views of his subject, which gave such an interest to that publication, characterize his present production, and render it a useful aid to instructers who have the charge of female pupils; while it gives just and comprehensive views of the general subject of education; as will be seen in perusing the following paragraphs.

'In the first place; *the various powers and faculties of the mind are not cultivated in a due proportion to the value of each.*

'It is one important object of education to impart useful knowledge to the mind; but it is of even more importance, to develope, and to train up to healthful and vigorous exercise, all its powers and faculties, both intellectual and moral. These will never arrive to maturity without a special cultivation adapted to each. Now one may be cultivated at the expense of another; just as in the corporeal frame, one set of muscles may be invigorated by use, to an almost indefinite extent, while another set is left, by disuse, to become incapable of exertion.

'In the early stages of education, it is of especial moment to develope and strengthen, in their due proportion, *all the mental powers;* for, if any of them are suffered, for any length of time, to lie dormant, it becomes the more difficult, afterwards, to excite them to activity. A child is a man in miniature; all its faculties are susceptible of improvement; and there is no greater mistake than to suppose that one is to be cultivated at one period of life, and another, at another. Can not a child discriminate, and reason, and exercise its judgment, as well as employ its memory? The objects, towards which its faculties are to be directed, it is true, must be suited to its capacity; but only let them be so, and every mental power in the child may be trained to increasing vigour, and prepared for future efforts.

'Now examine most of our modes of conducting education, and rather more peculiarly so, that of females than of males, and you must be struck with the fact, that *the memory is the one faculty,* on the cultivation of which, to an excessive degree, the attention and labour of the teacher are bestowed. Of what do most of the recitations of the younger classes in schools consist? Of the mere repeating of what has been committed to memory. I know where the memory is tenacious, and a mass of facts well lodged within its grasp, it has a very imposing effect, to hear a young Miss recite, without a mistake, what she has treasured up in such ample abundance. This, too, is all well, if, on investigation, it should appear, that the other equally important powers of her mind have

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been also as faithfully cultivated. But I fear this is sometimes, at least, not the case. And it ought ever to be remembered, both by teacher and pupil, that something more is necessary than mere strength of memory, or abundance of facts, to constitute either a great or useful mind.

'Although less absolute knowledge might be daily acquired; still, if the judgment of the pupil was called into exercise, with regard to its studies, by pertinent and interesting questions, on the part of the teacher, who can doubt that a deeper foundation would be laid, on which to raise, in the progress of education, a more extensive and durable superstructure

'There is one most wonderful power of the human mind, which discovers itself very early in childhood; which is capable of cultivation to a very high degree; and to the successful exercise of which, what we term genius, and also all true greatness of thought, or of action, are principally indebted for their existence;—I mean *the power of generalization;* and yet, especially in the early stages of education, it is almost wholly neglected.

'Permit me to illustrate my meaning by one or two familiar examples. One of the first, difficult efforts of the young mind, is to acquire language; and, indeed, a great part of the early stages of education is, of necessity, devoted to this object.

'Now take a word of which the child is ignorant; suppose it to be, *contain.* I give her one example of its use, derived from some very familiar object. I say, "that basket *contains* your playthings; they are in it; it holds them." I then, ask her "what does that vase *contain?*" She replies, "flowers." After thus inquiring with regard to two or three simple objects, I advance a step higher; "what does this room *contain?* that garden, that house, that city?" And to each of these questions I receive the proper answer; and you see how, by this process, the child is led gradually to enlarge her ideas till, by an induction of particulars, in the exercise of her own power of generalization, she arrives at what may be termed the generic meaning of the word, *to contain.*

'I may ask a young lady who is pursuing the study of Mathematics, what three and one are equal to, she replies, four. What are two and two equal to, she replies, four. Which is the most, three and one, or two and two; they are equal. How do you know it? Because they are both equal to four. I go on stating various, particular cases of a similar kind, and receive similar answers. I observe, "here, you say that these two things are equal, because they are equal to the same thing; and here, again you make a similar remark for the same reason. Cast your eye over all these particular cases, and what is the general truth that you deduce from them?"—She replies, "that things that are equal to the same thing are equal to each other." "You have discovered," I observe, "an important axiom in mathematics, and on which ma-

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ny useful results depend." Now I might have stated this general truth at the outset, and then illustrated it by particular instances; but not with half the same pleasure or benefit to the pupil.

'This mode of leading the youthful mind, *in the exercise of its own powers*, to arrive at general truths, not only produces a deeper interest, and a more fixed attention; but begets habits of independent and inventive thought, and trains the pupil to more extensive and vigorous efforts in all her future researches.

'It requires, indeed, a considerable degree of labour, and withal not a little ingenuity, on the part of the teacher. It seems, too, at first, to be but making rather slow progress. It does not give the young pupil quite so much the appearance of knowing a great deal on a variety of subjects, as the usual mode of taking every thing on trust, on the authority of the books, and of the teacher, and almost constantly doing little else than commit to memory;—but, if I mistake not, to whatever extent it is pursued, in the same degree, will be found an original, vigorous, active mind.

'I am aware, that the popular sentiment is, that in childhood, and during the earlier stages of education, it is *the memory alone* which can be cultivated to any considerable extent; and that, as the judgment has not acquired a sufficient degree of maturity, it is the better way for the young pupil to be laying up, as fast as possible, an abundant stock of knowledge for future use.

'As well might the farmer say, that his boy must not attempt to wield the axe, until his arms and hands have attained their full growth. It is *use, use*, which invigorates all the mental, as well as the corporeal, powers. While the memory is strengthened by a just proportion of exercise, and the mind is treasuring up its resources, let its various powers and faculties, on the due development and vigour of which, its very capacity to employ its knowledge to valuable purposes, depends,—all receive their equal share of cultivation, and education is then most effectually, and successfully, accomplishing what should be one of its great objects,—qualifying the pupil to think for herself; to be able to pursue her studies alone; to discover truths, and form conclusions, and establish opinions besides those with which her memory has been furnished, either by her books or her teacher. I will just add, that the *mode* of cultivating the memory, is if possible, more important than the *mere* fact of its being cultivated. The pupil should be led to do something more, than merely to recollect that she has read such a fact, on such a page, in such an author.—She should be taught how to arrange and classify these facts, with reference to some general principles, and thus, to improve, at the same time, her powers of judgment, and of generalization.'

It is with much satisfaction, that we transcribe sentiments such as the following. After all that we hear every day about the liberality of our plans of education, there is room to doubt

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whether ladies of our time do, in reality, acquire the power of thinking with more clearness, or expressing themselves with a more genuine ease and grace, than was common among educated females, fifty years ago. It is quite possible to dissipate and enfeeble the mind by miscellaneous and ambitious application—to fill it with ideas, and leave it no sense of their presence, and no power to use them. Of all the means of improvement which are peculiarly adapted to the female mind, the study of the English language seems the most genial and promising; and yet, unfortunately, is the most neglected. It is by far too common to meet daily, in society, ladies who have studied Latin, and who make a very indifferent use of English; and who have never, perhaps, in school or at home, sat down with a genuine relish to the perusal of an English work, or with a perception of the force, the flexibility, the beauty of that diction which has given immortality to Milton and Shakspeare.

'Surely it would seem to be of vital importance, that in the education of youth, no means should be spared to give them, in the most expeditious manner, *a correct knowledge of their mother tongue.* This object is too much neglected in our primary schools, and so long as the evil exists there, it must be met and remedied in our higher seminaries.—It will not do to say that the progress of our young ladies in other branches will thus be retarded.—What, studying Virgil, or the Greek Testament, and not acquainted with your own language! Reading French and Italian, and unable to stand an examination as to the real import of the English words used in a number of Addison's Spectator, and to show that you enter into the true spirit and meaning of the author!—Pursuing History, and Biography; Chemistry; Natural, Moral, and Intellectual Philosophy; and having, all the while, to say the least, but imperfect and confused notions about what you are studying, because you are not yet thoroughly acquainted with the language in which the works on these subjects are written!

'Wherever this evil exists, no time should be lost in applying the remedy. For it appears to me capable of demonstration, that no sure progress can be made in education, or in the acquisition of other languages, (unless one lives among those who speak them,) or in the attainment of knowledge, only just so far and so fast, as a thorough and familiar acquaintance is formed with the mother tongue.

'I am aware that there are difficulties attending this subject. It is much to be desired, that the evil of which I speak could be remedied in the very early stages of education. But since it is not; it is, I apprehend, a great mistake to let it continue through the whole course of instruction.—In conducting the education of young ladies, therefore, whatever other languages, or branches

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of study they may have time to attend to, secure, at least, their correct knowledge of the English language; and if a sacrifice of any language must be made, let all others be sacrificed rather than this.

'No department of education, I apprehend, is susceptible of more improvement, than that which relates to the instruction of our youth in their mother tongue; the importance, too, of devoting great attention to this in all our schools and seminaries for females, is much enhanced by the consideration, that so much of their influence and usefulness in society, depends upon their powers of conversation. In order both to cultivate and to employ these powers, a thorough acquaintance with the English language is absolutely indispensable.

'Besides, to whom, in the course of Providence, is entrusted the first development of the infant's mind? On whose countenance does its little eye first gaze, with all that intense delight which the charms of its new existence afford? Whose motions first arrest its attention? Whose voice is the music which first enchants its ear? From whom does it first learn language, the great instrument, as we have seen, of cultivating all its intellectual and moral powers? And who goes on, during the first few years of its existence, to impress upon its soul, with something like the certainty of fate, the character of its future destiny? It is the mother who does all this. Her influence upon the child, is inferior only to that of God; and she is the instrument whom He employs, in the wonderful workings of his Providence, for the accomplishment of such important purposes. Now language is the medium, through which alone the mother can have access to the mind of the child. The more accurate and thorough her acquaintance with it is,—the more successful will be the influence which she exerts in the early stages of education. With regard to the knowledge which youth of both sexes acquire of their mother tongue; the propriety and force with which they speak it; and the foundation which is thus laid of all their future improvement; who has not witnessed the wonderful effects produced by a mother, herself well skilled in the power and use of language.'

The following thoughts on practical education for females, furnish some useful directions for the guidance of teachers who are desirous of cooperating with parents, in endeavouring to make education subservient to the improvement of the whole character, and the usefulness of actual life.

'*Another defect in the education of females is, that they are not sufficiently taught the practical uses to be made of the knowledge which they acquire; and not sufficiently qualified, by the cultivation of their active powers, for the sober realities, and the actual business, of life.*

'Many judicious mothers, I know, by their own excellent example, and valuable instructions, worth every praise which can be

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bestowed upon them, prepare their daughters to discharge well the duties that their various relations, domestic and social, may impose upon them. But most mothers have too many cares, to attend minutely to the progress which their daughters are making in their studies at school, and to show them in what way the knowledge which they are acquiring, and the mental habits which they are forming, may be brought to bear upon the various concerns and transactions of life. In this, the instructress should bear her part; and a most responsible part it is.—Am I met with the objection, that the thing is impracticable, and that you cannot introduce into the school room those domestic scenes and occupations, amid which alone habits of business can be formed. I admit that you cannot, on this point, accomplish every thing;—does it thence follow that you can do nothing?

But we will not argue about general principles. Let us descend to substantial matters of fact. A young lady has studied Arithmetic, Geometry, and Algebra, and is a proficient in each; but when she goes a shopping, she cannot tell how much the articles which she has bought come to, without a pencil and paper, and then she is somewhat at a loss, about making the change. You smile, and think, perhaps, that I would fain ridicule the idea of a young lady's studying mathematics. Not at all. On the contrary, I would recommend, most strongly, to such as have leisure, the study, even in its highest branches, as one tending to invigorate, in an eminent degree, the powers of the mind.—What I lament is, that she has not been taught, to make a practical use of this branch of her studies.—It would be no difficult thing for the teacher, and her pupils to conceive, with the aid of a little imagination, transactions taking place in the school-room, which would furnish the occasion for the pupils performing *mentally* precisely those calculations which they may afterwards make when these imaginary transactions become real ones. Let the instructress be the merchant, and her pupils the customers. Let her sell her various articles, at their various prices, and receive in payment different kinds, and sums, of money, for which often change is to be made.—You can easily conceive what a multiplicity of questions in mental arithmetic would grow out of these fictitious transactions.

'You may think this exercise too humble a one for the instructress. No exercise is too humble, in the process of education, which will prepare the pupil for the pleasant, easy, and faithful discharge of those active duties, which she will have inevitably, and continually to perform in the course of her life.—Besides, there is, some how or other, a peculiar distinctness, vividness, and interest, imparted to questions of an arithmetical kind, when they relate to actual transactions. And I have no doubt that the exercise which I have suggested, simple as it may seem, would, if

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practised in all our schools, soon become exceedingly interesting to the pupils, and give them habits of mental calculation that they would retain, and afterwards turn to the most important uses.

'The arithmetical knowledge of a young lady, might also, in another respect, be made subservient to a very valuable attainment, that of her being able to keep accounts. I do not mean that an elaborate system of book-keeping, such as the man in business has to use, should be introduced into a school for females; but that each young lady should be taught a plain, simple mode of keeping a regular account of such money transactions as usually occur in domestic life. The innumerable inconveniences that arise from a want of this attainment, and the many advantages that would result from possessing it, I will not take up your time in describing.

'Again, I have recommended strongly, that original composition should be attended to, at a very early period in the course of education, and I have listened to productions of this kind, especially, permit me to say, in the Hartford Female Seminary, with a mixture of astonishment and delight;—and I have thought that I have seen in them the buddings of a youthful genius, which, if cherished and unfolded, and matured, would present blossoms as sweet, and fruits as fair, as were ever found adorning the walks of Female Literature. And yet are sufficient pains taken to make this valuable attainment subserve a useful purpose in the actual concerns of life? Many a young lady who has completed her education, much to her own honour and the reputation of her teacher, and who can write poetry that much older bards need not be ashamed of, and an essay as elegant as one of Addison's,—and many a student, too, (for I cannot forego the opportunity of referring to my own sex also,) who has taken his degree at college, and ranked among the first in his class, and written compositions, and disputes, and orations, and poems,—many such, if called upon an emergency, to write a plain business-letter on some of the common transactions of life, are at a loss;—hardly know how to set about it;—and produce one, at last, vastly inferior to thousands which are written by those who have had, compared with theirs, but very few advantages of education.'

We close our extracts from this useful pamphlet, with the following judicious observations on *reading* and on *conversation*, as important, though much neglected parts of female education. We are glad to see these things mentioned in connexion; for the former, to be successfully taught, cannot be separated from the latter. What the teacher of reading desires, or ought to desire, is, that young ladies would read as they talk, or as nearly so as composition will admit. But it is of little use to gain this point, if young ladies converse only on frivolous or indif-

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ferent subjects, or in a formal and affected way, or with a lifeless or drawling tone. Spirited conversation is justly prescribed as the standard of good reading. But to have spirit in conversation, there must be substance in it: there must be feeling in it:—there must be good taste enough to avoid a whining tone, and good sense enough to rise above the smothering effects of bashfulness. Modesty is, of course, the expected companion of goodness; but constraint is not necessarily so; and animated, easy, and natural tones in reading, can never exist, but by being transferred from a style of conversation to which they have become habitual.

'*Elocution is not sufficiently attended to, in the course of female education.*

'I know, great improvements have been made of late, in this respect, but much yet remains to be done. It is not enough that a young lady should be taught to read with a correct pronunciation, and emphasis, and without any very palpable fault. She should be taught to enter into the feelings of the author; to place herself in the circumstances in which he wrote; and to make the hearers feel as if he was really addressing them. One very striking fault in the reading of many persons is, that they do not adapt their manner to the peculiar character of the composition, but always read in one, uniform style. Perhaps there are some reasons why young ladies are in danger of doing this more than the other sex; or rather, why it is more difficult, in their case, to remedy this defect.—Their reading is confined to the fire-side, and to the domestic circle; and there seems to be, therefore, less of inducement for them to aim at the life, and variety, and force, so essential in public speaking.

'I cannot understand, why it should be thought, as it sometimes is, a departure from female delicacy, to read in a promiscuous, social circle, if called upon to do so from any peculiar circumstances, and to read, too, as well as Garrick himself would have done, if the young lady possesses the power of doing it. Why may she not do this with as much genuine modesty; and with as much of a desire to oblige her friends; and with as little of ostentation, as to sit down, in the same circle, to the piano, and play, and sing, in the style of the first masters? If to do the former is making too much of a display of her talents, why should not the latter be so? Nothing, but some strange freaks of fashion have madé a difference.

'But at any rate, amid her family and friends, to how many otherwise tedious, or useless, hours of life, may a female impart both delight and improvement, by *the charm of reading well.* If a wife, she can solace many a season of a husband's weariness or sickness. If a mother, what an advantage to her offspring, to have

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before them, as they are growing up, a living model, in the person of one, whom they are led to reverence and love, of an accomplishment, which our schools, and academies, and colleges, find it so difficult to impart. This latter consideration, in my view, has immense weight; for our habits of pronunciation, speaking, and reading, are first formed, in childhood, and in the domestic circle; and being once formed, it is a task of extreme difficulty to alter them. But I must bring my remarks to a close; for I already owe, perhaps, too much to the patience of my hearers. I ask their indulgence, however, for a few minutes, while I allude to one other defect, and it appears to me, quite a prominent one in the education of females; it is, *that their powers of conversation are not sufficiently cultivated.*

'Woman cannot plead at the bar, or preach in the pulpit, or thunder in the senate house. Yet hers is no trifling eloquence. Its power, though unostentatious in display, is mighty in result. In the retirement of her own family, in the circle of her friends and acquaintances, in the various intercourse of society, what a charm can woman spread around her; what a zest to every other enjoyment she can impart; what encouragement she can give to virtue, and what reproofs to vice; what aids she can afford to the cause of religion; in short, what an amount of good she can accomplish, and what an immense influence exert,—by her *mere conversation.*—Is it not, then, of vast importance, that her powers of conversation, should be cultivated, as a part of the course of her education, and not left, as they too often are, to take their whole character from the adventitious circumstances of life in which she may be placed? But you will inquire how is this to be made matter of instruction; must it not be the result, and the result only, of a young lady's intercourse with polished and intelligent society?—I think not. I would allow to such intercourse all the efficacy which it deserves, and doubtless this efficacy is great.—But I would go deeper than this; I would go farther back, even to that period of life, when females are not yet considered old enough to mingle in promiscuous society, and especially to bear their part in the conversation of others, much their superiors in age and intelligence. I would have the mother, to all the extent in her power, and the instructress, as a part of her course of instruction, devote themselves to this great object.—This is the very way, too, in which all the knowledge that a young lady is acquiring at school may be made of practical use; for it may all be introduced into her conversation, either for the entertainment or instruction of others.'

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INTELLIGENCE.

TEACHER'S GUIDE AND PARENT'S ASSISTANT.

ARRANGEMENTS have been made by which we expect to incorporate the above work with the Journal of Education, but in such a manner that it may be obtained separately by all subscribers who desire it.

It will be afforded without additional cost for publication or postage to the readers of the Journal; and it will be enhanced in value, we hope, though not in price, to the subscribers to the Teacher's Guide. It will retain much of its former character, and will receive, we have reason to hope, effectual aid from its late editor. Other measures which we have not room at present to state, have also been taken to add to the interest and the usefulness of the work, and to promote its extensive circulation among the teachers of common and primary schools, as well as in families. *See Advertisement on the Cover.*

COMMON SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

Albany, Jan. 30.—The annual report of the acting Superintendent of Common Schools, (the Secretary of State,) was made to the Assembly yesterday. It is a valuable document, embracing an interesting view of a subject in which the people of the State have and feel no ordinary interest.

It appears by the report, that of the 742 town and wards in the State, 741 have made reports according to law, and that only one town is delinquent. That there are in the towns which have made reports, 8298 school districts, and consequently the like number of schools organized, and that returns have been received from 7800 of those districts. That 179 new school districts have been formed during the year 1827, and that the number of districts which have made returns, exceeds that of the preceding year by 250. That there are in the districts whose trustees have made returns, 419,216 children, between the ages of 5 and 15, and that in the common schools of the same districts, 441,856 children have been taught during the year 1827—the general average of instruction having been about eight months.

The number of children instructed in the common schools, exceeds by 17,804, the whole number between the ages of 5 and 15 years. This estimate does not include the cities of New-York and Albany, where the children between 5 and 15 are not reported. The returns show an increase of 7,960 of the children between 5 and 15; and the number of children taught in the common schools, (New-York excepted,) has increased 10,255 since the last annual report.

In 1816 the number of children returned as instructed in the common schools, was 140,106; since which time the number taught has increased 301,750.

The sum of $222,689 44 cents has been paid to the several school districts during the year 1827; of this sum $100,000 was paid from the State treasury; $110,542 32 cents was raised by a tax upon the several towns in the State, and $12,453 45 cents was derived from the local school fund which certain towns possess. It is required by the school law, that a sum shall be assessed upon the taxable inhabitants, equalling that which is apportioned to each town; and by a vote at town meeting, double the amount may be raised: the sum apportioned from the state treasury is $10,000: thus it will be seen that the towns have raised by tax $10,542 32 cents more than was required to entitle them to the public monies. The amount distributed among the several district schools, exceeds that of the preceding year by $37,275 31 cents.

Argus.

[Since transcribing the above article, we have been favoured with a copy of the Report itself, from which we hope to present much interesting matter, in our next number.]

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STATEMENT, from the Department of War, (1827,) showing the number of Indian Schools, where established, by whom, the number of teachers, &c., the number of pupils, and the amount annually allowed and paid by the Government, with remarks as to their condition, &c.

NAME OF SITE AND STATION.	BY WHOM ESTABLISHED.	No. of teachers.	No. of pupils.	Am. an. paid by Government.	REMARKS.
Spring Place, Cherokee Nation, Alabama,	United Brethren,	7	11	200	All the Schools which have been reported, appear to be in a flourishing condition; and those which have not been reported, it is presumed are in as good and flourishing a condition as they were last year.
Oochgeelogy,	Do.	5	18		
Elliott, Choctaw Nation,	American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.	6	20		
Mayhew, do.		6	54		
Bethel, do.	Do. do. do.	4	16		
Emmaus, do.	Do. do. do.	4	25		
Goshen, do.	Do. do. do.	6	14	1,000	
Capt. Harrison's, do.	Do. do. do.	1	13		
Mr. Juzan's, do.	Do. do. do.	1	15		NOTE. Under the head of number of Teachers, is included all the Mission Family, including mechanics and labourers. The number of Teachers in the Schools, is from one to three. The reports include the whole without designating.
Ai-ik-hunna, do.	Do. do. do.	3	22		
Col. Folsom's, do.	Do. do. do.	1	7		
Senecas, near Buffalo, New-York,	Do. do. do.	8	45	200	
Union, Osages, Arkansas,	Do. do. do.	6	31	150	
Harmony, do. Missouri,	Do. do. do.	27	35	150	
Tuscaroras, New-York,	Do. do. do.	—	45	200	
Michillimackinac,	Do. do. do.	—	50	300	
Ottawas, Miami of the Lake,	Do. do. do.	21	10	100	
Brainerd, Cherokees, East Missippi,	Do. do. do.	—	—	550	
Carmel, do.	Do. do. do.	42	84	50	☞ The Government allow to Bishop Chase, for education of Indian youths in Ohio, $200.
Creek Path, do.	Do. do. do.			50	
High Tower, do.	Do. do. do.	—	—	50	
Dwight, West Mississippi,	Do. do. do.	15	50	200	The Government also allow to Baptist General Convention, for education of Indian youths of premise, in New-York, $350.
Cataragus, Senecas, New-York,	Do. do. do.	9	40	200	
Carey, on St. Joseph's river, among the Pottawatamies,	Baptist General Convention,	14	70	300	
Thomas, Grand-river, Ottawas,	Do. do.	8	20		
Withington, Creek Nation, Georgia,	Do. do.	13	25	225	
Valley-towns, Cherokees, East Mississippi,	Do. do.	8	50	175	
Tinsawattee,	Do. do.	9	38	175	
Tonawanda, Senecas, New-York,	Do. do.	-	30	175	
Oneida Castle, do.	Protestant Episcopal Church, New-York,	3	30	250	
Oneidas, do.	Hamilton Baptist Missionary Society,	5	35	200	
Wyandots, near Upper Sandusky, Ohio,	Methodist Society,	2	69	400	
Asbury Mission, Creek Nation, Georgia,	Do.	6	23	100	
Monroe, Chickasaw Nation,	Synod of South Carolina and Georgia,	12	24	400	
Tockshish, do.	Do. do.	4	15		
Cane Creek, do.	Do. do.	6	28		
Martyn, do.	Do. do.	2	18		
Florissant, Missouri,	Society of Jesuits,	9	25	400	
Charity Hall, Chickasaw Nation,	Cumberland and Misssionary Board,	9	26	250	
Pleasant Point, Quaddy Indians, Maine,	Society for propagating the Gospel, &c.	1	60	150	

Baptist Magazine.

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NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The Mental Guide, being a Compend of the First Principles of Metaphysics, and a System of Attaining an Easy and Correct Mode of Thought and Style in Composition by Transcription. Predicated on the Analysis of the Human Mind. For Schools and Academies. Boston; Marsh and Capen, and Richardson and Lord. 1828. 12mo. pp. 384.

The first part of this work, will hardly, we fear, prove very serviceable in instruction. It is too abstruse in its principles, and contains too much abstract expression to be practically useful to juvenile learners.

The second part, however, forms a very useful manual for classes which have commenced composition; as it furnishes, in one portable volume, a stock of pieces embracing a considerable variety of matter in the various styles of writing.

The first two of the author's directions to teachers, form a very important part of early discipline in rhetoric; they are as follows. 'Let every scholar attentively read his lesson;' [the teacher] 'requiring his particular attention to the punctuation, orthography, choice of words, structure of sentences, &c. In the second place, require a transcription of the sentiments contained in the lesson, in the scholar's own words.'

Whether young pupils may not be more puzzled than benefited by the last of the exercises prescribed, we think is somewhat doubtful. It is, to 'exercise the memory of the scholar, by requiring him to restore the chapter to its original form.'

The effort of attention required for this exercise is unfavourable to that which immediately precedes it. The third demands a minute observation of the *phraseology;* while the second implies a free and unembarrassed attention to the *thoughts*, with a comparative neglect of the expression. Both of these states of mind, however, are supposed to be coexistent. This species of discipline belongs, we should think, to higher stages of education than that for which the Mental Guide is intended.

Questions adapted chiefly to Goodrich's Smaller History of the United States. By Joseph Emerson. Wethersfield, (Conn.) 1828. 12mo.

From an examination of several sheets of this excellent manual, we are induced to bring it thus early before our readers, as furnishing the means of communicating satisfactory instruction in history to young pupils, and compensating for the brevity of most historical compends. This is effected by a judicious series of questions, and a valuable body of notes, presenting the information not found in the History itself. Teachers will find these Questions a very useful aid in a department of instruction otherwise very laborious or perhaps unsuccessful, although of more practical importance to the intelligence of the community in general, than other branches which receive much more attention in the course of education.

Le Traducteur François; or, a New and Practical System for Translating the French Language. By Mariano Cubi y Soler.

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Baltimore, F. Lucas; London, Boosey and Sons; Paris, Thoisnier Desplaces. 1826. 12mo. pp. 392.

'1. This book contains a hundred and fifty-six pages of the most beautiful and classic selections with which French literature has been adorned. In these pieces every variety of reading will be found; moral essays, interesting tales, pungent witticisms, fine narrations, elegant descriptions, oratorical beauties, and select pieces of poetry. By this means the student will be enabled, from the beginning, to form his taste on the best models, an attainment which, though seldom attended to, is by no means, inconsiderable.

2. It is well known, that the pronunciation of the French, is one of the greatest difficulties the student has to encounter in the acquirement of this language. That he may be enabled to study it by himself, corresponding sounds, through the medium of combinations of English letters, have been placed in the first twelve pages.

3. As all the verbs, in their various ramifications, have been printed in italic characters, the student will not be unnecessarily bewildered when the tense of a verb and another part of speech shall be alike. In the latter pages of the work, this distinction has not been made, that he might have opportunities to exercise his knowledge and ingenuity.

4. As every idiomatical expression, grammatical subtlety, difficulty of language, and peculiar manner of translating uncommon words, has been fully explained at the bottom of every page, as it occurs, the student will find no barriers to arrest his progress, no intricate perplexities to throw his mind into confusion and despondency. Thus, whilst all these impediments are removed, he enters practically and theoretically into the philosophy of language, by rules drawn from the very pages placed before his eyes.

5. A vocabulary, arranged in alphabetic order, of every word contained in the extracts, whether proper or common, primitive or derivative, has been attached to them. By this means the learner will not be obliged to refer to a number of volumes to translate his lesson; nor will he be confused if "occasional eclipses of the mind" should remove from his recollection the root of any verb, or the origin of any other part of speech.'

These are very important advantages for exact and thorough instruction in any language; they give much value to this book, both in regard to the labours of the pupil and those of the teacher, and will, we hope, be of service to the interests of education generally, by suggesting further improvement in the method of teaching languages. It is to the last two peculiarities of the work, as mentioned above, that we would chiefly solicit the attention of instructers. They embody all the advantages of good oral instruction, and give them a more permanent form.

There are, it seems to us, three stages of instruction into which such school books should be divided:

1st. *Literal translations* of simple *stories*, with perhaps an appendix of tables of *inflections*, and the leading rules of *syntax*.

2d. *Easy works* in the various departments of narrative, descriptive, and didactic writing, and a *grammar* and *glossary* coextensive with the reading matter, and strictly adapted to it.

3d. Books written in a *higher style*, embracing copious *notes* on grammatical peculiarities of all kinds, and a *dictionary* of the words in the reading lessons, with more copious synonymes than in the former class of books.

To these may advantageously succeed a course of *miscellaneous reading* aided by the *grammar* and the *dictionary* in the common way. Pupils would thus be led on, step by step; the unavoidable difficulties of the study of language, being adapted to their progressive ability; and their ultimate knowledge being more extensive and more exact, than with all the unnecessary labour of the old method; while the 'dangerous facility' of the Hamiltonian system is kept within safe limits.

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As fair specimens, on the whole, of the class books first suggested in the preceding list, we may mention the elementary translations of *Hamilton*. In the second class, the valuable work of professor *Roy* mentioned more than once in preceding Nos. of the Journal, and as a successful specimen of the third class, the *Traducteur Francois* deserves much commendation, as a work skilfully adapted to rational and practical instruction.

The Easy Reader. Designed to be used next in course after the Spelling Book, in Schools and Families. By John Frost. Boston; Bowles and Dearborn. 1828. 18mo. pp. 142.

The advertisement to this work intimates that the lessons are selected with reference to natural and animated reading, an accomplishment rendered difficult chiefly by the formal and unintelligible style of the books usually put into the hands of young children. The intellectual and moral objects of the pieces which form this selection, have also been carefully considered. On the whole, the compiler has, we think, been very successful; and has presented, in a neat and cheap little volume, a book very much needed in schools.

The Easy Reader, we would mention, for the sake of teachers who have not yet seen the work, corresponds in some respects to the Third Class Book, mentioned in the second volume of the Journal, p. 319; but contains less matter, though perhaps a greater variety of style, and certainly a much more accurate execution.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Evening Hours. Nos. I. II. III. IV. V. VI. Boston, Munroe and Francis. New-York, C. S. Francis. 18mo. pp. 214.

This volume is adapted to family and Sunday school instruction. It furnishes much useful information in a simple and pleasing way, and will be very useful to those teachers and parents who are desirous of obtaining assistance in explaining the scriptures, and illustrating the narratives of the sacred writers, with facts and events drawn from geography and history.

It is to be regretted that this book has stopped short at so interesting a portion of the New Testament.* But it may serve, as it is, for a guide to similar instruction, given, perhaps orally, and meeting more exactly the minds of particular classes of families.

The Juvenile Philosophers. By a Lady. Boston; Cottons and Barnard, and Bowles and Dearborn. 18mo.

This is a familiar and pleasing little guide to further study and information on natural philosophy. It will serve, perhaps, to aid mothers in giving explanations of common objects and appearances, in a way adapted to young children.

Every book is useful which aids a natural curiosity and a reasonable desire for instruction concerning any department of the great theatre of creation.

The Well Spent Hour. No. VIII. Boston; Wait, Greene & Co. 1828. 18mo. pp. 14.

This useful little publication, we are happy to observe, continues its acceptable contributions to juvenile improvement. Its familiar and interesting style are not by any means its only recommendations. It mingles with domestic occurrences and family conversation much instruction of a very elevated though unpretending character, and tending not only to the enlargement of the mind, but to the religious cultivation of the affections, and to diligence in the humble duties of daily life.

* Since the above was written, we have had the pleasure of observing that the work is resumed, and that several additional Numbers are published.

P. S. The Intelligence alluded to on p. 145, is unavoidably postponed till next No.

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AMERICAN

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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Origin of Colleges in Europe.

[No apology, we trust, is needed for continuing to present extracts from Dr. Johnston's valuable work. The history of the University of Paris, in its earlier stages, is the only satisfactory record of the progress of education in Europe. No nation besides France had, in those times, any considerable institution of learning. Indeed, as our readers must have observed in former articles on this subject, the University of Paris, was the great school of Europe, and the grand resort for education to the nations of every country in christendom.]

In the earlier periods of the history of the University of Paris, the lives and conduct of the students were extremely turbulent and dissipated. Though this happens more or less in all towns, where a number of young men are collected together, and freed from the restraints of servitude and dependence, yet, from a want of proper attention, it was carried to a height in Paris perfectly incompatible at once with the comfort of the citizens and with the progress of science. Gradually, however, as the government of the university became fixed on a firmer basis, and as a greater degree of order and regularity was introduced into the management of its affairs, the evils of this uncurbed licentiousness became more apparent, and attempts were made to remedy them, and to prevent a course of life so utterly at variance with real improvement. The greater number of students were boarded in the town ; and, in order to prevent the impositions of the citizens, the price of lodging was always regulated by a commission, composed of two members of the university

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and two of the townsmen. But, as in those times many students were utterly unable to defray the expense of living in this manner, it became a work of charity to construct buildings where they might be lodged in considerable numbers, free of expense and under the eye of a superior, whose business it should be to watch over their moral conduct, and train them to habits of industry and study. At first, established on a very small scale, these institutions led to the foundation of those colleges that afterwards formed one of the most important and essential branches of the university.

It is not easy to say when colleges were first founded; much confusion prevails upon the subject, and it is difficult to discover, whether the many public institutions established at early periods of history were intended as endowments for poor students or for religious associations, or as hospitals for the sick. According to Duboullai,* colleges may be dated as far back as the University itself. The two earliest, of which, however, the precise destination is still doubtful, were established in the twelfth century; the one named St. Thomas du Louvre, was founded by Robert Count of Dreux, son of Louis le Gros, under the protection of St. Thomas of Canterbury. In it poor students were supported gratis, and the king distributed alms; to which custom may be traced the origin of Bursaries. The other college was founded on the Mont St. Genevieve as a *hospice* for Danish students.† Its destination was afterwards changed.

These colleges were not schools, as in the present day, but merely public dwellings for students, who were conducted by their governors to the public lectures. According to Meiners, the first college, of which the destination is undoubted, was founded by an Englishman, first physician to king Philip of France, about the commencement of the thirteenth century. It was instituted originally for poor students; but its destination was changed, upon the arrival of the Dominican Friars in Paris, in 1217, who, by solicitation, obtained a gift of it for their own use. As this college had been dedicated to St. James, the Dominicans, upon gaining the possession of it in 1218, were named Jacobite Friars; and it is an interesting fact, that the formidable political body of the Jacobins derives its name from the same source.‡ The monks of this order enjoyed great celebrity for

* II. 463, 467. † Duboullai, I. 156.
‡ M. Paris. Duboullai, III. 92, 93. Meiners, I. 111.

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a considerable period, and the number of novices they attracted was enormous. Indeed, so far did they carry the system of luring students into their body, that the university, as well as the Franciscan monks, made a formal complaint on the subject to the court of the Vatican. This called forth a severe bull from Pope Innocent the Fourth. Succeeding Popes vied with each other in extending the privileges of the mendicant orders, whose fame rose with the celebrity of their teachers; theology and philosophy were publicly taught by them; and that they must have successfully taught, is sufficiently indicated by the names of Albertus Magnus, Alexander Hales, Thomas d'Acquin, and Bonaventura. Scholars and novices flocked to them from all countries, so great was their renown; and the humility of the mendicant friars was soon lost, or at least hid in the splendour of their celebrity. Encouraged by their success, other orders came forward: the Cistercian and Bernardine monks founded colleges, and soon usurped part of their prosperity. The colleges differed at first from the others, in being not entirely gratis; but as their wealth increased, this distinction was removed, and the scholars were received entirely free of expense.

Evidently adopting the models given him by these religious orders, Robert of Sorbonne, confessor of St. Louis, in 1250, laid the foundation of a college, which obtained, from the name of its founder, the title of College of the Sorbonne, and which was the first instituted for secular students of theology, as would appear from an expression contained in a decree of Louis, its great benefactor, which designates it as an establishment *ad opus congregationis pauperum magistrorum Parisiis in Theologia studentium.**

Such was the origin of the famous college of the Sorbonne, so well known in after ages all over Europe for its learning and bigotry, its crimes and follies. No other learned body previous to the time when the Jesuits acquired their ascendency, held so powerful an influence over the university, the parliament, the court, and the people, and none ever abused that influence more to the disgrace of science and religion, and to the injury of the state. Under Charles VII., Henry III., and Henry IV., the Sorbonne was in a state of open rebellion

*Bulæus III. 223, et seq. It would appear from Meiners, that at this period preliminary education was attended to; for he says, that no one was allowed to enter upon the study of theology who had not completed his course of philosophy, and obtained a degree of *Master*.

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against the lawful government of France; and, whilst for so long a period it was preaching and practising sedition, it persecuted all who laboured in the promotion of science and religion, and opposed itself with the utmost rancour and violence of bigotry to improvements in either. This is a severe, but not overcharged picture. Deeming every one beyond their walls unworthy of consideration, and denouncing every improvement in knowledge as heresy, because it touched their own character for infallibility, the doctors of the Sorbonne came in the end to raise up to themselves a host of enemies, and they finally sank into the contempt which their illiberal and intemperate behaviour so fully merited.*

During the course of the fourteenth century many new colleges were founded, the most celebrated of which were those of Navarre and Plessis. The first was the royal college instituted at Paris; the latter was founded by Geoffroi du Plessis, apostolical secretary to Philip V., in 1326. It contained forty bursaries; twenty for the arts, ten for philosophy and the natural sciences, and ten for theology, or canon law.† It was united to the Sorbonne in 1646.‡

The college of Navarre was founded in the year 1304 by Joan of France, with the concurrence of Philip the Fair and his eldest son Louis. It was endowed with funds to maintain twenty poor students of grammar who received each four sous a week; thirty of philosophy, who received six sous; and twenty of theology who received eight sous; grammar and philosophy were taught in it, as being reckoned essential to the study of theology; but law and medicine were excluded, and rendered incompatible with holding a bursary. Each division of the college had a teacher, and the teacher of divinity was at the same time Rector or Principal, and was chosen by the theological faculty of the university, which had also the right of making a yearly visit, and of inquiring into the expenditure of the house, and the behaviour of the inmates. An hospital and every other convenience and comfort were attached to the college; its affairs were conducted with an admirable regularity, and the whole service of the establishment was carried on so as to render it a model for colleges that were subsequently founded. After the death of the founder, the Bishop of Melun, the Chancellor of Paris, the Dean of the Faculty of Theology, and the Professor of Di-

* Meiners Geschichte der hohen Schulen, &c. I. 121. L'Abbe Duverne hist. de la Sorbonne.

† Duboullai, IV. 191. ‡ Crevier, II. 273.

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vinity in the College, were appointed Governors.* Little change was made in its internal economy; one or two additional teachers merely were appointed, and the term of enjoyment of a bursary fixed. If a student did not obtain a mastership or license before a certain period he lost his place.

But whilst the college of Navarre was so well managed, the same was not the case with the other colleges. Their affairs were so ill conducted, that, to prevent their total ruin, the university found it necessary to make a visitation, and the footing on which this should take place became a subject of considerable argument in the university itself,† as the nations could not agree upon the point, whether or not each had the exclusive right of reforming the colleges belonging to it. It has already been mentioned, that colleges were originally designed for the support and instruction of young students who had not the means of defraying their own expenses. In the course of time this destination was altered, and they came more nearly to resemble the colleges of the present day; that is, they took in pensioners, who, for a certain sum, were boarded, lodged, and instructed in particular branches of knowledge; besides which, students who did not dwell in the college, were at liberty to attend the lectures delivered in it. Colleges were now divided into great and small. In the former, which, in the reign of Louis XI., amounted to eighteen in number, grammar and rhetoric, philosophy and theology, were taught; in the latter, only grammar and rhetoric. Many colleges were founded in succeeding reigns; and in 1530 Royal Professors were established in the university for the first time by Francis the First, whose love of languages led him to wish more particular attention paid to their cultivation. The professors were paid by him, and gave lectures gratis; but, from the troubles that attended his reign, this institution was not carried so far as he intended; and, from the expensive wars in which he was engaged, he was unable to establish it as a particular or separate college. The lectures, therefore, which at first were upon the Greek and Hebrew languages, were delivered in one of the unoccupied buildings of the university. Henry II. assigned separate apartments for this establishment, Henry IV. was prevented by death from doing what he intended, and it was Louis XIII. who had the honour of building the 'College Royal de France.' Not only

* Meiners Geschichte der hohen Schulen, &c. I. 125.
† Meniers, I. 136.

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were languages now taught, but science in general was cultivated in this college; and Duvernet, in his history of the Sorbonne, says that its foundation was the epoch of the revival of the learned languages, and of the culture of the *Belles Lettres*. The instruction delivered in it being more generally directed to the public good, rendered the *College Royal* more useful, and ensured it a more permanent existence than the Sorbonne. On the first establishment of this institution by Francis,* an attempt was made to induce the celebrated Erasmus to accept the charge of it,† which he declined upon the plea of ill health and advancing age.‡

The establishment of colleges in Paris was a great advantage not only to students in particular, but to the existence and prosperity of the university itself. The students were no longer so much exposed to the seductions of idleness and dissipation; and those who were inclined to industrious habits, could find a

* Duboullai, VI. 93, 99. 221, 222. † Crevier, V. 237, et seq.

‡ Memoire, Hist. et Lit. sur le College Royal de France, Paris, 1758. I. p. 49. Duvernet Hist de la Sorbonne, I. 233. This college exists in the present day in the full possession of all its celebrity. It does not form one of the Royal Colleges belonging to the Academy of Paris; it is of a much higher class, and differs from them in many respects, both as to its constitution, organization, and courses of study. It was founded in the year 1530 by Francis the First, who elected twelve Professors to teach Greek, Hebrew, Eloquence, Philosophy, Mathematics, and Medicine; other chairs were afterwards formed. In the year 1774, it was organized upon the footing it is at present, with the exception of two additional professorships, founded by Louis XVIII. for the Sanscrit and Chinese languages. The Professors are named by the king, and under the authority of the Minister of the Interior. The lectures are upon the following subjects:—

Astronomy,
Mathematics,
Mathematical Physics,
Experimental Physics,
Medicine,
Anatomy,
Chemistry,
Natural History,
Law of Nature and of Nations,
History and Morals,
Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syrian Languages,
Arabic Language,
Turkish Language,
Persian Language,
Language and Literature of the Chinese and Tartars,
Sanscrit Language and Literature,
Greek Language and Literature,
Greek Language and Philosophy,
Latin Eloquence,
Poetry,
French Literature.

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place, where, in a species of retirement, they might prosecute their studies with zeal and without interruption. At the same time the university itself was upheld by the colleges, and obtained from them a degree of stability, without which it must have given way during the frequent disputes with which the country and the city were distracted.

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF NEW-YORK.

[From the Annual Report of A. C. Flagg, Esq., Superintendent of Common Schools, made to the Legislature of the State of New-York, January 29, 1828.]

A brief notice of the history of our school system, and of the appropriations by which a liberal and permanent fund has been established, will interest those who have watched the progress, and marked the results, of a system of instruction, designed to embrace the entire population of the state.

By 'an act for the encouragement of schools,' passed the ninth of April, 1795, twenty thousand pounds were appropriated for five years out of the annual revenues of the state, 'for the purpose of encouraging and maintaining schools in the several cities and towns in this state, in which the children of the inhabitants, residing in the state, shall be instructed in the English language, or be taught English grammar, arithmetic, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as are most useful and necessary to complete a good English education.' This sum was at first appropriated to the counties according to the representation, and afterwards 'in proportion to the number of electors for members of assembly in each county;' and to the towns, according to the number of taxable inhabitants in each. The several counties were required to raise a sum equal to *one half* of that appropriated by the state, to be applied in like manner. This act authorized the appointment of commissioners of towns, of trustees of districts, and required annual returns to be made to the secretary of state. An abstract of these returns is contained in the Journals of the Assembly of 1798. The paper marked G.* shows that there were, at that time, one thousand three hundred and fifty-two common schools, and fifty-nine

* Omitted for want of room.

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thousand six hundred and sixty children taught in the state. By a comparison with the returns of this year, it is seen that in the last thirty years, the increase in the number of schools is six thousand nine hundred and forty-six, and in the number of scholars taught, three hundred and eighty-two thousand one hundred and ninety-six. In 1800, a proposition to renew this act, was negatived in the assembly, fifty-two to thirty-nine.

The foundation of the present fund for the support of common schools in this state, was laid in 1805, by an act providing 'that the nett proceeds of five hundred thousand acres of the vacant and unappropriated lands of the people of this state, which shall be first sold by the surveyor-general after the passing of this act, shall be and hereby are appropriated as a permanent fund for the support of common schools.' This act also made provision for loaning the monies arising from this fund, until the interest arising from the same should amount to fifty thousand dollars; after which, the interest annually arising from it to be distributed for the support of common schools. This measure was recommended by the then governor, in a message to the legislature of that year. (See Assembly Journals, p. 112.)

In 1805, provision was made in the charter of the Merchants' Bank, that three thousand shares might be subscribed for by the state, and which was declared to belong to the fund for the support of common schools.

In 1811, five commissioners were appointed by the governor, 'to report a system for the organization and establishment of common schools.' In 1812, these commissioners made a report, which will be found on the Journals of the Assembly of that year, page 102. The system recommended in this report was adopted in 1812; it was amended and improved in 1819; and it is substantially the system which is now in force, and which has recently been revised and re-enacted.

By an act passed April 13, 1819, one half of the amount to be received from quit-rents was appropriated to the school fund. By another act of the same date, the loans of 1792 an 1808; the shares of the capital stock of the Merchants' Bank, held by the people of this state; the nett proceeds of all lands which may escheat to this state in the military tract; and the nett proceeds of the fees of the clerks of the supreme court; were forever appropriated to the school fund.

In 1824, forty thousand dollars, being a reservation in certain grants for lotteries, were added to the common school fund.

In 1826, an act was passed authorizing the annual distribution

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of one hundred thousand dollars to common schools; and as the school fund produced only eighty-five thousand dollars, fifteen thousand dollars were paid for the general funds of the state. To provide a permanent fund which would produce one hundred thousand dollars per annum, the law of 1827 was passed, appropriating one hundred and thirty-three thousand dollars, which is noticed in the preceding part of this report.

To elevate the standard of education in the common schools, it is indispensable that the qualifications of teachers should be improved. The inhabitants of the school districts ought to be impressed with the great importance of affording such compensation, as will induce men of good talents to fit themselves for the situation of teachers, as a profession for life. The character and usefulness of the schools, are immediately dependent upon the qualifications of the instructers.

Connected with the subject of training up competent teachers for the common schools, it may not be inappropriate to notice the provisions of an act passed at the last session of the legislatuare, 'to increase the literature fund, and to promote the education of teachers.' This act appropriates one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, to be added to the literature fund; and requires the distribution of the income of that fund among the incorporated academies and seminaries, 'in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in each, for six months during the preceding year, who shall have pursued classical studies or the *higher branches of English education.*' Heretofore, the apportionment has been confined to the number of students pursuing *classical studies.* The increase of the literature fund, and the extension of its benefits to all such pupils as are pursuing the higher branches of an English education, will tend to multiply the number of those who will be qualified to instruct in the common schools, and to encourage the academies in becoming nurseries of teachers.

The paper marked H.* shows the relative gain and loss in the number of children taught in the several counties. A diminution in the number of children instructed in the common schools, is not to be taken as conclusive evidence of inattention to the subject of education, in the county where it occurs. It is rather to be regarded as indicating the establishment of private schools, and the consequent withdrawal of scholars from the public schools.

'The 22d annual report of the trustees of the public school society of New-York,' gives a very flattering account of the

* Omitted for want of room.—*Ed.*

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progress and good standing of the public schools in that city; and having visited eleven of these schools, in company with the commissioners of school monies, in October last, I can add, with much pleasure and satisfaction, my testimony to the justness and accuracy of the report, in whatever relates to the character of the schools, and the skill and ability of the teachers.

A judicious selection of class books is important to the common schools. Improvements in this particular are desirable. Within a few years, a class of books have been published, which seem better adapted to the capacities of children, and which tend to inculcate a more just conception of the principles of our free institutions, than some which have preceded them. It is our system of universal education, which is to shield this country from the fate which has, sooner or later, overtaken every republic which has existed. To give effect to this principle of vitality, and thus to give permanency to our happy form of government, the first rank should be given to American history, as well as to American principles, in our seminaries and schools. As a measure, preparatory to the introduction into our common schools of class books of an improved and uniform character, it migth be advisable to make an appropriation of one hundred dollars per annum, to enable the superintendent to collect an assortment of school books, as specimens merely. Such a collection of books would form a beneficial appendage to our school system, and would furnish the necessary materials for making a selection of those best adapted to the purposes of instruction.

A. C. FLAGG,
Superintendent of Common Schools.

ADVANTAGES OF MATHEMATICAL DISCIPLINE.

[The value of mathematics, as a branch of education, has always been justly urged on the attention of parents and teachers. The close, and sustained attention, required in the study of this science, and the clearness and force of thought, as well as the patient and careful habits of investigation, to which it is so conducive, are all arguments of much weight in its favour.

But it would not, perhaps, be difficult to prove, that, in past theories of education, if not in those of our own day, the proportion of time and attention assigned to mathematical science, in the abstract, has been very unequal; when we consider the importance of other branches of study, and their more extensive

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use in the various departments of business. The recent advances, however, (daily becoming more rapid and extensive,) in many sciences directly applicable to the conveniences and comforts of life, are now giving a more practical turn to the mathematical part of education, as connected with the study of those sciences. A subservience to useful purposes is more carefully consulted in the course of application prescribed in most seminaries; and in no institution, we believe, has the usefulness of education been more attentively regarded than in the Lyceum at Gardiner.

In a former No. (16) we gave an account of this interesting school of practical instruction. The following paragraphs are extracted from the farewell address of Mr. Hale, formerly principal of the Lyceum. For the use of the copy from which our extracts are made, we are indebted to a friend of improvement, who had procured and transcribed the original address.]

With all the encomiums, which are now lavished upon science, and with all the prevailing excitement upon the subject of education, there is lingering in the minds of the community, a disposition somewhat adverse to thorough instruction. Every short cut to science is thronged with travellers; and books which give some slight notice of philosophy are eagerly sought. And we would say nothing to prevent the good which such books are doing. I rejoice at the faintest dawning of science, and expect the full effulgence of day. I would felicitate the community upon the better understanding of a single principle, and hail him as a benefactor to the public, who turns one new rill into the stream of knowledge.

But when the importance of thorough instruction and of extensive knowledge in philosophy and mathematics, is not known, and, with only a little labour, enough to satisfy the present appetite can be acquired, few will give days and nights of weariness for profound attainments. I have had the happiness, gentlemen, to agree with you* in the belief that we should render the most valuable service to the public by prescribing a course of study in mathematics and philosophy, as thorough as the time which could be devoted to such pursuits would allow. The various attainments which can be made by a few weeks' labour, without apparatus or experiments, will soon be perceived to be insufficient, and the sooner, if the value of more extensive knowledge is demonstrated by its results.

* The trustees.

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It may be thought that those who are destined to mechanical pursuits cannot appropriate sufficient time to make any valuable attainments in the mathematical principles of philosophy. This opinion is erroneous. Is it uncommon for such young men to spend two or three years at schools where they pass their time in some desultory efforts at learning the languages, in committing some philosophical accidence, and in acquiring some knowledge of surveying and navigation, without having laid any foundation in algebra and geometry? This is far better than nothing; but in the same time which is taken up with this ill assorted learning, a scholar might thoroughly acquire several of the most important branches of the mathematics, and their application to physical and mechanical science.

The difference between attainments made by rambling efforts, not directed to a definite object, and those made by pursuing a well digested course of study, is surprising. I have seen it in my own pupils. While some, whom we have indulged with too much liberty in directing their own studies, have passed away a term, without becoming much the wiser; their companions, who have patiently travelled on in the regular course, have found themselves to have made attainments, of which they had reason to be proud. There is no question but in the same time which is passed away by multitudes of scholars, without making any solid acquisitions, a more perfect knowledge of mathematics and philosophy might be acquired, than is attained in the regular course of study at most of our highest institutions.

It is supposed that the mathematics are too abstruse for immature minds. What relations, I would ask, are more simple than those of greater and less? What ideas are so well defined as mathematical; and is it possible that the comparison of indefinite notions should be easier, than of those which are precise, of those whose relations are numerous and unsettled than of those whose relations are few and simple?

Such is the character of mathematical reasoning; and I believe it essentially easier than metaphysical, which is yet supposed not to be beyond the reach of boys and girls at school.

It is true that a person may be deemed respectable for his attainments in metaphysics, while his notions are shadowy and indistinct. But, in mathematics, he who has not distinct ideas, has none. And this points out to us the real difficulty of mathematical studies, and their real excellence. They require of us at every step the most clear perceptions, and accustom us to exactness of reasoning.

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Mathematical ideas can be made clear to a mind of common acuteness, if they are presented in their proper simplicity; and if, after patient trial, mathematical studies are given up as unattainable, it must be the fault of the book or the master.

I speak advisedly: I could point out to you instructers who have taught for years with no inconsiderable reputation, and who have uniformly omitted certain rules in arithmetic, because they could not teach them; and I could then direct you to schools, where children daily solve questions in those very rules by calculations entirely mental, and find amusement in it. And I see not why the same may not be true of other parts of mathematics; and I imagine that men of after times will wonder at the difficulty which their ancestors found in perceiving and pointing out the most simple of all relations.

I need not descant upon the uses of the mathematics, without which the heavens would speak an uninterpreted language to the mariner, without which the engineer would in vain attempt to serve the cause of internal improvement—or of the mechanics to a people busily employed in erecting manufactories, in constructing vessels, and in perfecting a navigation which regards neither wind nor tide. If you can find any thing, which can neither be measured nor numbered, you will discover a limit to mathematics; and if you can find any thing to which nature has given no properties, no power of giving or receiving action, you will discover a limit to philosophy and mechanics.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Early Intellectual Application injurious to Health.

If this be the case, (speaking of the evils of the sedentary and confined life of professional men and of some classes of mechanics), with those whose corporal and other powers of resistance have arrived at their fullest strength, how much more truly may it be affirmed of those who are yet in that progressive stage, which precedes the full developing of the system. Of how much moment then is the physical, as well as the moral, education of children! We have only to observe the manner in which strong feelings act, to judge of the comparative influence of less powerful impressions. Correspondent to the degree in which sensations exert their influence, a reaction is produced, which we distinguish by the term 'emotion.' The agitation produced

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by the first sensation is immediately communicated to the whole nervous system; and according to the nature of the impression made upon the mind, a commensurate sympathy is felt in the animal economy. To reiterated or continued emotions, affections succeed, and (the term being applicable to unpleasant as well as pleasant states of the feelings) certain trains of agreeable emotions produce those affections which increase the force of the vital energies, while emotions of a different nature tend to depress them. Convinced as we must be, how much our relish and enjoyment of life in all its stages depend upon the state of the mind, we cannot for a moment doubt its influence at that early period, when the frame is most susceptible. Under circumstances of great anxiety, with what activity do the vital properties sympathize! With what rapidity do they pass from the highest to the lowest degree of energy! The whole habit feels disordered—the muscular fibres lose their tone, and the stomach becomes affected; such is the subserviency we involuntarily pay to the nervous influence, which to the animal system is what the sun is to the flower. What indeed has aptly and poetically been termed, 'the sunshine of the mind,' has in every part of life the same happy effects; but its presence is the most indispensable in that early stage, when the developing of the intellectual and organic system may be said to depend in no small degree upon its influence.

The interest which appears due to this subject will be increased, when we look around us and behold the silent inroads which deformity and disease have been making upon the health or beauty of the present generation of females, and consider that their great natural susceptibility makes *them* peculiarly allied to suffering, and gives them a conformation less favourable to mental tranquillity. So much is this the case in civilized society, that it often happens that few in number are the merely physical causes of evil, in comparison with that inexhaustible moral source which is derived from the disposition to create sorrows by imagination; to perpetuate them by reflection, and to multiply them by apprehension and anticipation. The natural counterbalance of this, is that organization which renders the motions fugitive in proportion to their violence. But by education we diminish this great natural spring of ease and consolation, in the degree that we increase the disposition to reflection, and turn the mind upon itself. Yet such is the first aim of intellectual instruction; and the new condition in which we thus place the mind ought to remind us of the delicacy and tenderness with

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which the task should be performed; so that in proportion as we render the system susceptible, we may diminish the sources of irritation and pain.

But it is a duty in many cases to pursue the means of diminishing rather than of increasing the action of the intellectual functions. When we observe a weakly physical organization united to that exquisite delicacy of perception, that finely constituted mind, cognizable in some delicate females, at an early age; we have reason to suspect that the energies of life are far from strong. That precocity of intellect, that brilliancy and exuberance of imagination, which parents are so fond of contemplating in their children, conceal too frequently under a flattering surface a frightful danger. In the strict economy which nature practises, this extra development of the intellect can scarcely take place but at the expense of some other part of the system; and in those young subjects in which it is remarkable, particularly when it is accompanied with weak stamina, it behooves us to attempt to balance the general powers, and to counteract this inordinate action of the intellectual functions, by adequate muscular movements in exercise. The records of navigators furnish us with the accounts of different tribes of savages, who are willing to barter for a present gratification, their most essential necessaries; in civilized life we are apt to reverse this picture, and to make the sacrifice, not of the future to the present, but of the present to the future. Such is the case, when in our anxiety to give our children accomplishments, which shall decorate the years to come, we overlook the important wants of the present hour, though they are essential to that health, which alone can warrant us to expect the period, which such decorations are intended to embellish.

By aiming, therefore, at this mental brilliancy, where the powers of life are weak, we run great risk of destroying the very basis upon which it is founded, and of rendering the glare short lived in proportion to its brightness. In both sexes the finest genius appears often connected with peculiar delicacy of constitution and, under similar circumstances, it behooves us to be vigilant, lest, in our too great anxiety to give expansion to the former, the latter should suffer irretrievably. Where an enemy lies in ambush in the constitution, its advances are made frequently under cover of those accomplishments, elegant or literary, with the display of which it is natural to be pleased. But it seems supposed, that the studies of females, from their lightness and less profound nature, are less likely to

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be dangerous to the health, than those of the other sex; yet from this very cause they are frequently more so; and hence, one reason why their health more frequently suffers at school than that of boys. The more light and superficial is the character of study, the lower degree of interest does it excite, and commanding less the activity and exhausting less the excitability of the mind, it increases greatly the irksomeness of the confinement. From this and other causes, among which may be generally considered an inadequate degree of muscular exercise, the female habit, particularly in the early part of life, displays an organization of the most irritable and susceptible character. Hence the prevalence of consumption, scrofula, and spinal disease. It is, truly, at once a melancholy and appalling consideration, how large a proportion of young women of the present day, who are fashionably educated, whether at boarding schools or at home, are the victims of some one or other of these diseases; and in reflecting upon this, it is impossible not to be struck with the humbling lesson which is thereby read to the pride of man. Is, then, all the boasted intellectual superiority of the present day purchased at the expense of our physical powers? Does not the author of our being thus show us, that we cannot highly cultivate one part of our nature without injury to the other? Is knowledge a weakness? Is genius a disease? One thing at least is certain, the bodily strength of the females of the upper and middle classes of society has been materially injured by the fashionable modes of instruction which have now for many years prevailed; the parents therefore of the rising generation, and the teachers of it too, should have their eyes opened to the frequency of these diseases, and the picture of their miseries, their causes, and the means of their prevention, should be from time to time held up to them. It is only by so doing that those, who have, to speak collectively, *the care of health*, can be said to fulfil the duty which they owe to the public, or that any rational hope can be entertained of checking the fearful ravages of these diseases, particularly of the last, by leading them to reflect on these things, and their consequences. I would urge them to consider, whether the sum of human happiness, virtue, and social usefulness, has, or has not increased by this barter of physical strength and mental peace for those accomplishments, which, in the struggle of acquisition, render their possessors incapable of long retaining or fully enjoying them. To go beyond this point, in speaking upon a subject to which I have not adverted without much of anxious

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feeling and many painful recollections, would be to overstep the bounds which are prescribed to me as the minister of *health alone*, or I might ask, with even yet more seriousness of inquiry, are those who have the care of children quite sure, that in thus far immolating them on the altar of this world, they run no risk of depriving them of all 'good hope' of 'that which is to come?'—*Dr. Cooke.*

EARLY EDUCATION OF FEMALES.

[For the following thoughts on this subject we are indebted, as our readers will observe, to the author of the article in our last, under the head of Suggestions to Parents on Female Education.]

Since my suggestions on the subject of female education have been deemed worthy of being placed by the editor of the Journal among his 'suggestions to parents,' I am encouraged to proceed in unfolding a plan of operation, which, I think, would bring instruction to bear more immediately upon the mind, and consequently require a shorter period of time to do its work. By this I do not mean that more hours should be devoted to study than at present. Even a less number of hours might accomplish more than is at present done, were the studies arranged with more attention to their nature in reference to the age and state of mind of their pupils. Teachers have neglected this principle of arrangement too much; and children are kept for months, not to say years, labouring upon subjects, which, if presented at the proper period, could be acquired in a few weeks. For instance, as *grammar* was taught heretofore, children were made to commit it to memory, were taught the technicalities of parsing; and all this before they were capable of understanding the principles of *universal grammar*. Thus years were devoted to the study, when, there is no doubt, a mind fully awake, at the proper degree of maturity, having been made to comprehend the principles of universal grammar by a week's attention, could be put in possession of the peculiarities the grammar of our native tongue—in a month. The question is how to produce that attentive mind, to which acquirement is an exercise as natural and constant and agreeable as that of breathing. Education can

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never be thought to have done its work, till this effect has been produced.

The first steps which are to be taken, regard physical education; and in this department, there is vastly more to be said and done. The nervous temperament of children must be consulted, and the means of inducing self control discovered, since all external attempts to repress nervous movements but increase the difficulty. The nerves of a child can only be controlled negatively—that is, not be excited by others. All positive influence must proceed from the child's own mind.

But the best physical education is not sufficient to produce an attentive mind. Indeed, it is well known that the most inattentive, inefficient, sleepy minds are often connected with firm health; and that some kinds of disease operate for the advantage of the intellect, by producing quiet and checking restlessness. The deep conviction of the mind's ability to be sound and happy in itself, is one of the compensations which inspire in those constituted feeble, a deep and happy consciousness of the equity of the Father of our spirits.

But however independent we acknowledge the mind may be in particular instances of bodily deformity, yet no one doubts that the generality of mankind, placed as they are in the midst of active duties, need health. The feeble may be deeper thinkers, and a few are useful because they may think for others; but the feeble cannot act, and a great deal of action must be performed in human life.

It is the business of education, therefore, to furnish material on which children, overflowing with the buoyancy and activity of health, may expend their superfluous riches, and to watch for moments when the body is in comparative repose, (at which moments the mind craves its appropriate food,) to communicate those ideas which we wish should reach the mind, and become a part of it. Bodily movement, (and in children how incessant it is!) interferes with attention; and this must be allowed for and indulged in some way. Children were made to act; and for a certain season they resist being acted upon except at the intervals of their own activity. Would we be aware of this, and respect it as one of those laws of nature which spring from Infinite Wisdom, we should find that watching for impressible moments, and using them efficiently, we should assist the young mind much more effectually than we now do in attempting too much.

In our selection of the early employments of children, then,

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we must give them something to do which will entirely employ this activity. Play will not serve the purpose. Children can never be made to have any sense of responsiblility about play, and the growth of the mind must always have the sense of responsibility as one of its elements, or the fruit will not be immortal. The sober employments, the studies of children, must afford them something to do, if we wish to produce real power of intellect. This principle is acknowledged, though not always acted upon, in moral education. We do not suppose we can give moral power by discoursing ever so eloquently upon the beauty of disinterestedness, and describing ever so minutely all the actions which constitute the way of virtue. We give children opportunities of loving, and encourage them to acts of kindness, and rely upon making them individually feel their responsibility to make others happy at their own expense, and in this way we prepare them to comprehend the theory of moral sentiment, and to catch and apply with the rapidity of thought every new mode of performing duty, which may suggest itself to them. Intellectual power cannot grow without intellectual action, any more than moral power without moral action. Science and literature are the development of the action of mind upon certain materials. In order that they may be rapidly acquired, it is necesary that the student understand mental action, which cannot be understood unless it has been experienced, and that he be able to fix his attention upon these materials—which is the more difficult if they are only represented in words. To aid this attention, then, is the object, as well as to employ activity; and will not *the art of drawing* serve all the purpose? For, in the first place, it employs the activity of children, and produces that quiet which is necessary to the reception of instruction, and by a less repulsive mode than forcible repression of the animal spirits. No danger can arise from a few hours, quietness if the mind is absorbed in an interesting occupation, but to be quiet for its own sake is as injurious to children as it is unnatural. Learning to draw, teaches accurate observation also. This is of infinite importance. It will soon be transferred to nature, whose forms become the source of taste by giving beautiful material for imagination to work upon; and by being carried into the studies of children, will make those which are often now quite uninteresting, to be rapidly acquired. The habit of observation produced by drawing, will aid very essentially in teaching children to spell correctly. We remember a case in point. A child of seven or eight years old was once

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under our immediate observation, who had only learned his alphabet, but whose taste for drawing had been cultivatd remarkably. This child learned to read in the 'Sequel to Frank' in ten days, (and without going through the process of learning to spell,) by the accuracy of his eye—and was becoming interested in analyzing the words into syllables and letters, which he did with great expertness; when he was taken away, and we were deprived of the opportunity of witnessing or even hearing of his further progress.

There is no question that drawing would facilitate writing. A pencil is much more easy to wield than a pen, and the use of it would produce a flexibility of the fingers, besides that the habit of imitation would be already formed; and it is nearly useless to let children attempt writing until they possess both flexibility of fingers, and this habit of imitation in some degree. Drawing would also be of direct use in the study of *geography*. It is not only very useful to draw maps, but in physical geography conception may be rendered vivid by drawings of the plants and animals, and sometimes of the landscapes of the regions described.

The drawings, however, should be of common objects, whenever it is possible; and a great deal of collateral instruction concerning common things may be conveyed in an informal way, and will be rendered distinct to the minds of children by the accompanying delineation. At a later period, when the theory of perspective is taught, the science of optics, and the great laws of nature connected with it, will almost necessarily interest the mind, and open the way to *natural philosophy and mathematics*.

Besides all this, there is is the general influence upon *taste*, to which we have only referred. A delicate taste is of the highest importance to those whose business it is 'to preside over the society of society, the more civilized part of civilized life.' Drawing the human face will lead to a consideration of the power of human passion over the material with which it is connected, and almost necessarily enlist taste against loss of the equilibrium and beautiful expressions of virtue.

Some persons have made the objection to drawing that it has too much the appearance of play. Experiment would very soon do away this objection. Drawing is quite as severe an employment as any of the studies of children, but has the advantage of other studies in being more agreeable, because employing their fingers and filling their imaginations.

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Other persons say that all children have not a taste for drawing. This is not an undisputed point, however. The desire to imitate the forms of objects is one of the first things observed in children. They are soon discouraged, it is true, and even when there is great delicacy of taste; and perhaps the discouragements may be attributed in many instances to the very delicacy of the taste, which produces dissatisfaction when execution falls below conception. There will be more difficulty in some children's learning to draw than others, as some are too indolent to make the requisite exertion and some too restless to be persevering, and it cannot be taught as an amusement. But this may be said of all the studies and employments of children and less of drawing than any other. We never ask whether children have a taste for writing, and hardly observe their reluctance to learning to write, because writing, we say, is necessary. What unfits drawing for a mere amusement, makes it a very proper employment for the serious hours of school.

Having made these preliminary remarks, we proceed to state our plan. We would have girls begin to draw as soon as they leave those first schools where they learn to read and sew. We would have it precede writing and geography, and in some instances arithmetic. Some children have a facility for arithmetic; and when that is the case, it should be studied. But when there is an aversion to it, it would be better the child should have the advantage of some previous discipline on the power of attention.

Two lessons in *drawing* a day, and these at first for quite a short time, together with *writing*, *spelling*, *reading*, and such exercises of mind as may be drawn out of the reading lesson, might employ a year or two in early education with great advantage. A great deal is lost by children's not being led to understand thoroughly the meaning of words; and especially by their being set to learn lessons without having learnt first to read readily and understand at a glance the import of a sentence. Among the exercises upon the reading lesson, that of *discriminating synonymes* can be early taught by the teacher's proposing to them sentences for consideration in which a word nearly synonymous is inserted instead of the right word. A difference will often be made obvious to them in this way, which they could not perceive before. *Tracing etymologies* is very entertaining work to children when they are assisted in it, as they always must be; and their attention is easily attracted to explanations of the *figurative applications of words*; and perhaps it is not

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often adverted to, that children require explanations of figures which are so trite that we unconsciously confound them with literal expressions, and especially when the figure is contained in one word.

Reading should always, when it is possible, be done in classes, and by a proper selection of books, having first produced the habit of attention by letting them read what is attractive to the imagination, the instructer may convey considerable knowledge of *natural history*, of the *manners* and *customs* of other countries, and were there more books like Scott's 'Tales of a Grandfather' even of the *history* of nations.

It is not possible, at this moment, to enter into detail upon all that should be done by the reading lesson in the discipline of children. The subject might afford matter for a volume; and the highest order of minds need not feel that this stage of education is beneath their powers.

Children having been taught to read with ease, and understanding to draw, and to write, we would proceed to combine with these, *arithmetic* and *geography*; and where it is intended that the languages should be learned, the Latin, or when Latin is to be omitted in education, the French. The exercises upon the English language which were combined with the reading lesson, will be found to be a very great assistance to children in their study of other languages. An efficient mode of teaching, and uniform, not intense application on the part of the pupils, will give children, after such discipline, a complete foundation in the study of language, in four years, beginning at the tenth. In some instances, an earlier beginning is advantageous; but in such cases the course will not be completed earlier though it was begun earlier.

But we do not think it of so much importance that young persons should begin that course of self improvement which we mean should employ them for two or three years after they leave school—with a great deal of acquirement, as that they should have taste, strong and attentive minds, industrious habits, and judgment in the application of their faculties to new studies. We would recommend that there should be no artificial stimulus to exertion in school, no motives offered that will not operate just as powerfully in solitary study. The motives that spring from the sense of responsibility and the pleasure of exercising the faculties, will even be more powerful on retiring from the busy scenes of the school room. E. N. Q.

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REVIEWS.

1. *Oeuvres de Du Marsais.* Paris. 1797. 7vols. 8vo.
2. *A Selection of M. Perrin's Fables, accompanied with a Key to facilitate their Translation. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language, at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. 1827. 12mo. pp. 84.
3. *A Key to a Selection of M. Perrin's Fables. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. 1827. 12mo. pp. 227.
4. *Les Aventures de Télémaque fils d' Ulysse, par Fénelon. From the last and best Paris Edition, accompanied by a Key to facilitate the Translation of this Work. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. J. Saval. 1827. 12mo. pp. 355.
5. *A Key to the first eight books of the Adventures of Telemachus, the son of Ulysses. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. J. Saval. 1827. 12mo. pp. 273.

It has been justly remarked that *theory* exhibits *principles* only in a lifeless state, while practice gives them animation, and experience confirms their strength. In no art or science is the truth of this assertion more strikingly exemplified, than in the formation of *methods* of instruction. The reason why, in this matter at least, practice so often varies from theory, is, that the two are frequently found in the hands of different individuals.

The practical teacher, is, often, of too limited a capacity, or too slender attainments, to form principles and digest them into a system; while the theorist is equally deficient in the skill to apply, and in the patience to justify his principles.

But since the public has decided that the business of education in our country, must, in future, be conducted by men of enlarged and liberal minds, capable of discovering and stating as well as of comprehending and applying principles,—and that the practical and theoretical teacher shall be united in the same person, it seems likely that a new order of things will ere long be exhibited. Of this happy revolution in public opinion the rising generation will reap the principal fruits; but the philanthropist of whatever age may enjoy the prospect.

For this reason we are glad to find the exertions of well educated practical teachers, who know the actual wants of the

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youthful mind, and who are free from pedantry, conceit, and mysterious pretensions,—employed on the preparation of books suited to the purposes of early education.

Du Marsais was born in 1676, and died in 1756. A great portion of his long life was devoted to literary subjects, and especially to the reforming of methods of instruction. The first edition of his '*Exposition d' une methode raizonnée pour apprendre la langue Latine*' was published in 1722. Many sagacious observers had, long before that time, perceived the gross abuse of youthful talents and dispositions, and the unprofitable waste of human life, in the prevalent method of studying languages; but none that we are aware of, had devised and applied an adequate remedy.

Many expedients had been suggested, and much thought bestowed on the perfecting of methods; but all were insufficient to remove the difficulties, encountered in this department of education. The Irish Jesuits resident at Salamanca, had, about the year 1605, proposed the plan of introducing boys to an extensive acquaintance with Latin words, by means of a collection of phrases in Latin and Spanish, so constructed, that no word, except particles, connectives, and the like, should be more than once inserted, and yet that none but *approved* words should be introduced. Their work was published in London in 1615, and contained twelve hundred sentences. The title adopted was, the *Gate of Languages*, ('Janua Linguarum,') and so ready an access was it supposed to afford to the mysteries of tongues, and so great an improvement was it found to be on the methods then in use, that editions were soon prepared and published adapting the work to almost all the countries of Europe. In 1631 John A. Comenius, having discovered, as he says, divers imperfections in the work of the Irish Jesuits, particularly that the sense in which the Latin words were used by them was not always the original or principal signification, and that their book was rather a test of attainments already made, than a true guide to new acquisitions,—published a work which he called *Janua Linguarum Reserata*, or *the gate of languages unlocked*, which in one thousand sentences embraced no less than eight thousand different words. These sentences were arranged under one hundred different heads or general divisions, each comprising an important class of real objects.

All abstract and unintelligible words and phrases were diligently excluded. Even this, however, was far from giving the exact, literal translation of each word; and though every word

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was in such a construction as the usage of the particular language required, yet that construction was not the same for all languages; and consequently one was in this respect no guide to a knowledge of the other. We apprehend that, in practice, such a book must be found scarcely more interesting than a naked vocabulary; and for teaching construction it would be no better than any other piece of composition furnished with an easy translation.

At the period when Comenius wrote, a practical acquaintance with the Latin language, such as would enable a man to write and speak not only on literary subjects, but also on the most common topics and occurrences, was deemed highly desirable; and to this purpose his work was well adapted, inasmuch as it contained a great variety of words relating to the common affairs of life. But though successful beyond his expectations, this device did not supply all the defects in the method of teaching languages. The pupil acquired a *copia verborum*, and received many correct impressions of things. Some editions which we have seen, were accompanied with cuts, representing certain classes of the objects described. This was in conformity with that canon of the didactic art which Comenius lays down, as universal, namely, that the tongue and the understanding ought ever to run parallel and keep close company; because 'he who cannot utter what he knows, is a statue, and he who knows not what he utters is a parrot.' But all these helps did not remove the most formidable of those obstacles which are to be surmounted in studying a foreign language.

Notwithstanding the labours of Comenius and of many others, who, during the seventeenth century, declared their hostility to the ancient methods, the system of the schools still prevailed. Ascham, and Locke, and Faber, and Ratichius, had all written to convince the world that reform in the business of education was essentially necessary for the welfare of mankind; but like the arguments in favour of English parliamentary reform, their appeals were made to men who were interested in retaining the abuses and corruptions which were the subject of complaint. To their own age, therefore, their writings were, for the reason which we have already stated, productive of little immediate benefit: the practical teachers were unable to understand the force of their reasonings, and apply the principles which they developed. Things remained nearly in the same state, when the rational method of Du Marsais first made its appearance.

That it was considered an innovation of no slight importance,

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may be inferred from the fact, that several of the most respectable journals of France, immediately engaged in the discussion of the subject. But his antagonists in the *Journal des Sçavans*, and the *Mémoires de trévoux*, wrote like pedants, while Du Marsais answered them like a philosopher. Their weapons were prejudices, his solid arguments.

In such a contest, the result could not but be in favour of our author. Experience and reflection had concurred in assuring this accurate observer and interpreter of nature, that the methods commonly in use for teaching the Latin language were extremely erroneous, both in principle and in practice. Boys were furnished with grammars and dictionaries; and, after some months spent in committing to memory the jargon of the former, were required by the sole aid of the latter, to proceed immediately to the production of *themes*, or compositions in the Latin language,—in other words to create something out of nothing. Where this monstrous absurdity did *not* exist, there was still to be found a long course of training in the abstruse rules of grammar, before it was deemed expedient to admit tyros, to the privilege of reading any of the Latin authors. And when this was at length granted,—when books whose subjects were level with their capacities, were put into their hands,—how were they to make themselves acquainted with their contents? By the aid of a dictionary which professed to exhibit every *approved* word in the Latin language, the pupil was expected to surmount at least four species of obstacles, any one of which, was, in all probability, too great for his unassisted strength. He was first to divest the word in his text of all *prefixes* and *terminations*, in order to reduce it to the form of some word in his dictionary. This process often included addition as well as subtraction; *diligentissimorum* was first to be curtailed down to *diligen*, an *s* must then be added to bring it to the shape, to which the definitions were adapted; *rerum*, was by a similar process to be metamorphosed into *res*; *reliquerat* must assume the form of *relinquo*, and *recepisse*, of *recipio*. We say nothing of such cases as *refero*, the nucleus of *retulerunt*, or of *nanciscor*, the word which must be found in order to decipher the meaning of *nacti fuerimus*. We know it will be said that the scholar was prepared by the study of his grammar to make these disentanglements, and that if not so he must be sent back to a revision of that edifying volume. We think it would be a great concession to grant that one in a hundred would in fact be prepared, after the usual course of mere grammar lessons, to unravel all the intricacies of inflection, and re-

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duce the words of the easiest Roman authors to the forms of the dictionary. But grant, that by his knowledge of the grammar, or by a lucky *guess*, or by the aid of a more advanced school fellow, he had succeeded in hitting upon the right form, and that the language presented only one word of that form, (though the contrary would often be true,) what was the *next* process? If the word happened to have no more than one definition annexed, the lucky rogue had only to yoke the Latin to the corresponding word in his native language, and drive them, if nouns, through the beaten paths of number and case; if adjectives, through the additional cross ways of the three genders; and if verbs, through all the labyrinths of modes, tenses, numbers, and persons; embracing in some parts the further variations of genders and cases, until he finally arrived at the gaol from which he had originally started.

But if the word, found in his dictionary, happened to be one of those to which the lexicographer had given some twenty different significations, the first step in this part of his course would have been to determine which of all the Protean assembly ought to be preferred. And how would a lad of nine years old decide this puzzling question? By a reference to the context, or to the general scope of his author? But the method in question supposed him to know nothing but his grammar, nothing of the context, nothing of the drift of the composition, nothing of the relation, which the word before him bore to the other parts of the sentence. Here then was a third obstacle to be encountered, even before any use could be made of the success, (if such the result chanced to be,) of his two preceding efforts. The words of his classical authors remained in the same order of arrangement in which the writers had placed them; and that order was often wholly different from the customary construction of the scholar's vernacular language. To the original speaker or writer, this *inversion*, as it is called, occasioned no embarrassment, because it coincided with his habitual manner of thinking and speaking. His ear seized the slightest impression which indicated a grammatical structure, referred it to its proper purpose; and thus at the end of the longest and most intricate period, his mind readily comprehended the relation of the parts, and the meaning of the whole. Not so with the inexperienced youth, condemned to a long apprenticeship under those merciless task-masters, grammar and dictionary. To *his* mind, one arrangement was as natural as another, in reference to the language which he was learning; and, consequently, he

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had no guide to the analytical structure, no key to the combined, literal meaning of his sentences. His task resembled what is sometimes practised in assemblages of full grown children, where from the letters of several alphabets, written on separate scraps of paper, one individual selects such, as, when rightly joined, form some word or phrase, which he has in mind, and gives them to another person to discover what word was intended. To a belle or beau in a tea party, whose stock of common place is exhausted, the devotion of half an hour to guessing *how to spell*, may deserve no very serious reproof, but rather commendation. To the school boy, however, whose every moment is invaluable, and whose respectability and happiness in life, are to depend on the reality, and solidity of his early acquisitions, the wasting of half a dozen years in a similar process of *guessing*, becomes a solemn and momentous consideration.

The fourth cause of perplexity was the want of directions for supplying ellipses. The embarrassment occasioned by those abbreviated expressions which prevail in every language, is well known, even to those who study only their native tonge. But when these contracted forms of speech are encountered in a *foreign* language, the difficulty is incalculably greater; because neither the abridged expression is known by practice, nor the structure of the uncontracted phrase by analogy. To all these difficulties, might be added the *figurative sense* in which words and phrases are often employed, and which it requires an extensive knowledge of arts, sciences, manners and customs, to render intelligible.

Du Marsais did not come to the examination and removal of these difficulties, with those lights only, which his own understanding could furnish. He appears to have read attentively the works of the ancient grammarians, and the speculations of Locke and other philosophers;—to have imbibed all that was most essential to a clear understanding of their principles, and with the aid of experience to have applied his knowledge of the human understanding to the formation of a system for teaching languages, which we think is destined to become universal. He did not, as Dugald Stewart seems to intimate,* propose to leave out of his course of instruction, a critical acquaintance with grammatical *minutiæ*. His language is,—'This method has two parts, practice and reasoning; ("routine et raison;") that is, the second part consists in giving reasons for what has

* Elements of Philosophy,—American edition, vol. III. p. 209, note.

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been learned at first by practice. In the common methods, Latin is taught in a manner scarcely more rational than that of him who should undertake to teach a child to speak his mother tongue, merely by explaining the mechanical structure and operations of the organs of speech.'

In acquiring the Latin language, we must learn,—

1. The signification of Latin words.

2. The Latin *inversion* or transposition of words, which are not placed in the natural order of our own language.

3. The ellipses, or expressions in which some words are understood.

4. The Latinisms, or modes of expression peculiar to the Latin tongue.

The above particulars constitute what Du Marsais calls 'routine.' All these points are to be made clear, and a stock of words obtained, by using Latin authors reduced to the natural constructive order, with all ellipses, supplied, furnished with a literal interlinear version, together with a more free translation where the idiom requires it. But he by no means leaves the subject of language when the student has acquired, through *interlinear version*, a knowledge of these preliminary matters.

'When the pupil has been for some time exercised upon the "*routine*," above explained, he is taught the mechanism of Latin construction, by making, if we may so express it, an anatomical dissection, of every sentence, and giving a just and clear understanding of all the *parts of speech*, according to the principles of rational grammar.

'At an early period of his preliminary practice, and as soon as the pupil has begun to remark the different terminations which words receive according to different situations, he is taught the names commonly given to the several terminations of the same word. The purpose of their invention and application, is made known to him;—that is, he is taught to *decline* and *conjugate*, and at the same time, is, by insensible degrees, made practically acquainted with the *preliminaries of syntax*.'

As to the composition of themes,—Du Marsais by no means rejected this exercise from his course of instruction; but it formed, with him, a part much less conspicuous, than with most of his cotemporaries. He recommended that the language to be translated into Latin, should be that which had been previously translated *from* it. In this we recognize the principle of double translations so strongly recommended by Ascham, Locke, and others.

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Du Marsais applied his system only to the Latin; but our readers will perceive, that if we substitute the word *Greek* for Latin in all that has been stated above, the principles which he recognized will be found equally applicable.

Much more is the *practical method* applicable to the teaching of *modern languages*. Indeed the best feature of that system which is now, under another name, gaining some favour in England, (though it obtained but a very equivocal approbation in this country,) are all to be found in the works of Du Marsais. To verify this assertion and to exemplify the principles of our author, we shall extract a short passage from the Prologue of Phædrus, arranged and translated as it stands in the volume before us; and shall then subjoin a passage from the edition of the first two books of Voltaire's Charles XII. noticed in a recent number of our Journal.

Texte. Æsopus auctor quam materiam repperit
Hanc ego polivi versibus senariis.
Duplex libelli dos est, quod risum movet,
Et quod prudenti vitam consilio monet.

Traduction. Esope est le premier auteur de ces fables, et je n'ai fait que leur prêter l'agrément de la poësie. Ce petit livre a deux avantages, il amuse, et il instruit. On rit de voir que les bêtes parlent entr' elles, et on tire de leurs discours et de leurs exemples, des avis salutaires pour la conduit de la vie.

CONSTRUCTION *selon l' ordre de la syntaxe simple.*

Ego (Phædrus)	polivi (cum)	versibus senariis	(hanc) materiam			
Moi Phedre	*j'aipoli avec*	*des vers sénaires de six pieds*	*cette matiere le sujet*			
quam	Æsopus	auctor	repperit.	Dos	hujus	
qu'	*Esope*	*auteur*	*a trouvée. inventée.*	*La dot L'avantage*	*de ce*	
libelli	est	duplex	(propter) illud negotium (secúndùm) quod			
petit livre	*est*	*double*	*à cause de cette chose, selon la quelle*			
(hic libellus)	movet	risum	et	(propter illud secundùm)		
ce petit livre	*excite*	*le rire*	*et*	*à cause de ce*		
quod	monet	vitam	à	consilio	prudenti.	
que	*il avertit il instruit il aprend*	*la vie a vivre*	*par*	*un conseil*	*prudent.*	

The following sentences taken from the beginning of the sec-

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ond book, exemplifies the arrangement in the history of Charles XII.

Trois puissans rois menaçoient ainsi l'enfance de
three powerful kings threatened thus the childhood of
three powerful kings threatened thus the childhood of
Charles Douze. Les bruits de ces preparatifs con-
Charles Twelve. The noises of these preparations dis-
Charles the Twelfth. The rumours of their preparations
sternoient la Swède, et alarmoient le counseil.
mayed the Sweden, and alarmed the council.
struck Sweden with consternation, and alarmed the council.

It will be observed that in this extract the construction of the two languages is so nearly alike, that no device is needed to make the French intelligible to a person who understands the English. But this is not always true of the French and English, and in some cases even the second translation would hardly render the precise sense of the words intelligible. We think, therefore, that the plan adopted by Mr. Bolmar, of marking the constructive order by *figures*, is to be preferred, not only as it saves the necessity of a second translation, which must be, to a very great extent, an exact, and we may add, a *vain* repetition of the first, but also because it renders the sense, on the whole, more clear. We say more *clear*, because, as to *elegance*, that is out of the question, in a translation as literal as the second line in this interlinear version ; it would also be out of place at this period of the student's advancement. For it must be remembered, that he is studying a *foreign* language, not cultivating the elegancies of his own.

We next quote a sentence from one of Mr. Bolmar's keys, remarking that the figures standing before parenthesis refer to the foot of the page ; while all the rest indicate the order of words in the *construction*, and that English words marked with asterisks are to be omitted.

Calypso ne pouvait se consoler du depart d' Ulysses;
Calypso ^{2}not ^{1}could ^{4}herself *^{3}to console of the departure of Ulysses
Dans sa doleur elle se trouvait malheureuse d' etre
In her grief she herself found unhappy ^{2}(of to be)
immortal. Sa grotte ne resonnait plus de son chant
immortal. Her grotto ^{2}no ^{1}resounded ^{3}more ^{3}(of) her singing

* ^{1}for—^{2}in being—^{3}with.

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les nymphes que la servaient n'osaient lui parler.
3 1 2 5 4
the nymphs who her waited upon not dared to her *to speak.
Key to Telem. p. 1.

Mr. Bolmar following the example of Du Marsais, furnishes his pupil with a separate volume for the recitation room, with nothing but the pure text of the original on which to rely for the performance of his task. From this he must make his analytical construction, give the precise signification of words, supply ellipses, omit redundancies, and make all the requisite substitutions. All these things the key, if properly used, will enable him to do. It will not, however, enable him to accomplish all these things, without much application; so that all the pretences, which the opponents of this system have raised, about its tendency to foster indolence, will be found utterly groundless. We grant that if the exercises assigned to be learned by the key were to be no longer than could be *well* prepared, by the aid of the dictionary and grammar only, the pupil might find much more time for his other studies, than while following the old method. The obvious remedy against idleness, is to increase the amount of lessons, until all the time allotted to the exercise is found to be filled up. If you teach one scholar by the key, and another by dictionary and grammar, the two must, for more than one obvious reason, not be placed in the same class; but if all be furnished with keys and the master understands his duty, there will manifestly be no necessity of leaving a moment unoccupied. There will, we admit, be less exercise of thumb and finger, less wear and tear of school books, on the system now recommended, than on that which has heretofore prevailed. But let not our worthy gentlemen of the *trade* be alarmed, for we do not assert, nor do we believe, that there will be less demand for books; on the contrary we anticipate a great addition to the number of those who pursue the study of languages.

We are aware of the timidity and distrust with which some very respectable people will open the volumes whose titles we have placed at the head of this article. They have so often heard it asserted, and have by habit become so much accustomed to admit, that every thing in the shape of a *translation*, must be kept out of the student's reach, that it will require no little effort to eradicate this notion, and to substitute in its place the opinion which has been maintained by numbers of the greatest philosophers, and most accomplished teachers in Europe, for

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the last two hundred years. The idea of an interlinear version will, moreover, be connected in their minds, with a recollection of the quackery which pretended to teach the French language to persons of whatever capacity, in *forty-eight lessons*. But by inspecting the two *keys*, observing the amount of their contents, and remembering that these are intended only to introduce the pupil to a knowledge of the *facts* of the language, which are afterwards to constitute the basis of his grammatical analysis,—they may easily assure themselves, that Mr. Bolmar makes no such absurd pretensions. Nor does he advance the assertion, which every man's experience contradicts,—that each word has one *sole*, *undeviating* meaning. Still, as in every language, each word has its *original* or *principal* signification, he appears to have studied to preserve, as far as possible, this primary sense; annexing, however, in his notes the proper English words, wherever secondary or figurative meanings in the original demand corresponding translations.

The objection, so often repeated, that *translations make scholars lazy*, is fully obviated by the manner in which the key and the pure text are severally used. We permit Mr. Bolmar to give his 'directions' in his own words.

'With the aid of this key, the pupil is to prepare the lesson assigned to him in his French Telemachus, so as to be able, when called upon, to give his teacher, *first* a literal translation of each word, and *secondly*, a free translation, or translation of *ideas* of each sentence. In preparing the translation of *ideas*, the pupil must bear in mind;—

'That an asterisk * is placed before words which are to be left out. That a parenthesis ( ) embraces the English expressions, which, in order to give a tolerable translation of *ideas*, of the French, must be changed into those English expressions at the bottom of the same page, which are indicated by the numbers placed outside of the parenthesis.

'That the numbers, placed before a word or words, in a parenthesis, and those placed before words, not in parenthesis, show the order of the words according to the English instruction; and,

'That sometimes, in order to complete the sense of a sentence, it has been necessary to add some English word; in that case it stands without any French word over it.'

We would suggest, as an improvement of this plan, that the words *substituted* should be placed in a line with those for which they are used, rather than at the foot of the page.

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We hope we shall not be thought to deviate too far from the dignity of our craft, if we conclude this article by relating an incident, for the actual occurrence of which we can offer as voucher an ancient manuscript too much defaced to allow its date to be accurately deciphered; but which, we have strong reasons to suspect, is of the same age as the 'Old Play,' so often quoted by Sir Walter Scott.

About the year 16— a French priest, who had resided some time, as a missionary, among the Iroquois Indians, on the borders of Canada, and from *practice* had learned their language, became particularly attached to a young chief of that nation; and in order to repay the simple hospitality of his entertainer, engaged to convey him to France, and acquaint him with the wonders of its metropolis.

The priest had been educated in all the scholastic rigour of his time, and thought, of course, that his instruction of the savage must be commenced *secundum artem*. He therefore employed himself during the whole voyage in writing out, revising, correcting, and copying, a long string of most accurate and logical definitions of the various objects which he intended to exhibit and explain to his red companion. A country, a town, a street, a lane, an alley, a church, a convent, a palace, a museum, a college, a restaurateur, a comedy, an opera, a ballet; all these and at least a thousand other objects with which he was himself familiar, were defined with all the exactness which the Iroquois language allowed. Not a few of the more abstruse and technical terms, were, however necessarily in *French*, or other European languages.

The coast of 'beautiful France' was at length perceived, and the young warrior was indulging the fond anticipation of soon enjoying a sight of the far famed queen of cities. What was his disappointment, therefore, when set on shore at Havre, to find himself placed in an obscure dwelling on the borders of the town, where he was told he must remain until he had committed to memory all the definitions which his guide had provided! At first he applied himself with alacrity, in hopes of being speedily admitted to the promised gratification. Finding, however, that little progress was made in his task, and that he gained no ideas from this mass of verbiage, his natural inclination got the better of his curiosity, and he relaxed into indolence. His conductor flattered, exhorted, expostulated;—telling him that every thing here was learned in this way, and that he must not expect to obtain a knowledge of *things* before he knew their

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names and definitions,—since the learned doctors of the Sorbonne would disapprove that *method* :—This argument, however, had but little weight with the son of nature. He soon grew moody and sullen; evincing symptoms of strong disgust, sometimes exhibiting a disposition to vent his displeasure on the person of his guardian, and a still stronger inclination to consign to the flames, the manuscript containing the hated jargon, which, he found, was likely to furnish his sole employment for at least a year. Seeing such reluctance, on the part of his *protégé*, to persevere in this painful toil, the priest recollecting the manner in which he had himself acquired a knowledge of the Iroquois language and customs, at length resolved, in defiance of the didactic principles of his *Alma Mater*, to convey his pupil immemiately to the city, and show him *things* themselves, instead of tormenting him longer with mere verbal descriptions. Arrived in Paris, he exhibited its wondrous magnificence, its social haunts, and its ever varying amusements. The curiosities of that world in miniature, were constantly opening to the astonished and delighted senses of the chief, a wider and wider field for contemplation. The gloom of discontent soon disappeared from his brow. The acquisition of knowledge was mingled with all his pleasures and occupations; so that, instead of spending a year in conning over unintelligible words and propositions, he, in the course of one month, became perfectly acquainted with ten times as many things as the priest had thought of defining.

The learned doctors met in conclave and seriously debated whether they should publicly reprimand the priest who had allowed so flagrant a violation of the *leges didacticæ* established by their ancient college. One of their number, more rigid than the rest, even hinted that the offender deserved condign punishment; alleging that, if, in one case, things were allowed to be studied before their definitions had been committed to memory, the example would become contagious, and men would soon arrive at the enormity of commencing the study of language before that of grammar; and he cited Melancthon to prove that the man who should be guilty of such a practical heresy, would be a fit subject for the gibbet.

Another learned professor shrewdly remarked, that the change which his friend had deprecated might possibly occur, but that so long as the influence of monastic institutions remained, the prejudice to which he alluded was not likely to gain any important ascendency, and that the less noise they made about it the better. This opinion was finally acceded to. In the mean time,

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the American prosecuted his inquiries, became a proficient in the language of the country, and at length having gratified his curiosity, returned home enriched with information for the amusement of his family, and for the instruction and improvement of his nation.

Elements of Chemistry for the use of Schools and Academies, by ANDREW FYFE, *Lecturer on Chemistry to the Edinburgh School of Arts. With Additions and Alterations by John W. Webster, M. D. Erving Professor of Chemistry in Harvard University.* Boston. Richardson and Lord. 1827. 12mo. pp. 394.

AMONG the various perplexities connected with the business of teaching that is not the least, which attends the selection of books to be used by the pupils. Such is the zeal for improvement, and so ready are people to take new things for an improvement, that he who refuses to introduce every new book promising to be better than an old must incur the risk of being thrown into the rear ground of his fellows. Yet who that is accustomed to hear the complaints of parents and others about changes and expenses, will not have some qualms about introducing every new work that is offered? Add to this, who will undertake the office of umpire, balance the pretending claims, and decide which book may and ought to be used? In no department, perhaps, have these perplexities been multiplied to a greater extent than in those of *natural science* and *natural history*. To cheapen, and reduce to the level of the humblest capacity, as well as bring to the door of every individual, one would suppose had been the aim of authors and publishers of books on these subjects in these improving times. And to such an extent has the system been carried that if men are not philosophers and naturalists, the fault must be charged to some other cause than the want of books adapted to every degree of capacity —for from the A B C of science, up to highest point to which genius has reached, there is scarcely a conceivable space, for the filling of which, some book has not been prepared.

The annunciation of a new work on a subject, about which treatises almost countless in number have been written, may seem to come with an ill grace, when there are so many good ones already in existence. Books on *chemistry* have been multiplied till it is scarcely possible to tell the amount. And if the ad-

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vance of the science is to be estimated by the books that are published, one may sit down in despair of keeping pace with the progress so rapid are its strides. While, however, it is not of course true that the appearance of a new book is a proof of such an advance in the science as forms a necessity for a publication, yet it does not follow because there are already many in existence that there is no occasion for another, particularly if designed for *academies* and *intermediate schools*. We say for academies, for why should they not have their peculiar books as well as colleges and universities? If they are to occupy a place in the scale of institutions for education, they ought to be furnished with the means, and among these, a class of books suited to their wants is certainly not to be overlooked.

The book whose title we have announced is intended for institutions of this description, and also as a sort of manual for such as are engaged in manufacturing. That such a book was needed will not be doubted by any one acquainted with the state of our intermediate schools, and with the public feeling in relation to the course of studies to be pursued. Though there are many books written professedly for the use of such schools, yet a plain, practical, treatise, embracing the most important principles of the science, with their application to the purposes of life, was no where to be found within a compass suited to their state. Though many attempts have been made, and though in many of these attempts, the authors deserve credit for their exertions, yet it cannot be denied that there was room for improvement.

The work under consideration makes its appearance under circumstances that give it a just claim to attention. It was originally published by a lecturer in a distinguished institution of the city of Edinburgh, and has been republished in this country by a gentleman deservedly eminent in science and a professor in our most distinguished university. Originally prepared for a *mechanic institution*, it needed some alteration to adapt it to the state of our intermediate schools. These alterations, it has been the aim of the American editor to make, and with these, the book is offered to the public.

In offering our opinion of its merits, we do not hesitate to say that it deserves high commendation. We do not claim that it is perfect, but if it has faults, it has many counter-balancing excellences. Owing to its being prepared for the object mentioned above, it has not so much of the scientific dress as might be expected in a work designed particularly for schools, nor are all the subjects introduced that are to be found in some of

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the larger works, or which appertain properly to the science. The writer's aim seems to have been, not to attempt to say all that might be said, but what he deemed most important. Such parts of the science as can be most readily turned to account have been introduced, while those which serve chiefly to gratify curiosity are but slightly noticed. The article on caloric; that on bleaching with chlorine; the manufacture of glass and earthen ware, together with tanning leather, and dyeing cloth are explained in such a manner as must afford satisfaction to every reader. There is also a good description of many important articles of chemical apparatus, and of some, that have never been introduced into the smaller books. Among the additions made by Dr. Webster, we would notice the sections on affinity, and the nomenclature of modern chemistry which are well explained; and there are various operations connected with the arts that are well illustrated both in the theoretic and the practical part. For ourselves we could have wished to see the science spread out in a more formal manner on the plan adopted by Mr. Brande, and we are disposed to think that such a method might have been adopted with benefit both to the scholar and the artisan. Some parts might have been abridged; some things might have been struck out, and others added so that there would have been a gain without swelling the book to an inconvenient size. Had there been also a reference to more experiments, we think it would have been a useful addition. But, on the whole, we regard the book as a valuable acquisition to the chemical student, and do not hesitate to rank it among the best of those that have been prepared to be used in our intermediate schools.

The standing and character of the gentleman who has published this edition, are a guaranty to the public that it is not a work of mere pompous profession. The service he has on a former occasion done for our colleges, in publishing an improved edition of Brande's Manual,* entitles him to the thanks of all who have occasion to teach, or who wish to learn something of the science. The present attempt to accommodate intermediate schools, deserves equal approbation, and we trust will be duly appreciated. We have written our remarks not for the sake of finding fault, nor for the sake of unqualified approbation. Having had occasion to use the book, we have found it both instructive and interesting. And we do believe that every instructer

* Reviewed at p. 554 of vol. I.—*Ed.*

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who proposes to teach this science in his school will be gratified in examining this book. If we mistake not, he will find it a valuable substitute for almost any other that has been used in academies or similar schools. It is a book which comes opportunely at this time for the manufacturer, and it is one which every person connected with the chemical part of manufacturing will find of great service in his business.

INTELLIGENCE.

[The new arrangement of the contents of our work will render it convenient to place those articles which relate to common and primary schools in the latter part of each Number; while those which relate to collegiate or intermediate institutions, such as academies &c. will follow the Reviews. This division of the various stages of education will be favourable, we think, to correct and systematic information regarding seminaries of every description, whether public or private. We are happy to commence this arrangement with an article so deserving of attention as the following. It presents the prospectus of one of the numerous private efforts recently made for the advancement of what may be called superior education, as embracing a higher range of studies than has been usual at academies and similar schools. The sentiments expressed in this prospectus are, as our readers will perceive, those of one familiar with the business of education, and with the dispositions and wants of the young. We need not particularize those ideas, which, in this and many other documents connected with the progress of education, indicate the rising demand for good instruction in whatever is likely to be useful in life. We prefer leaving the prospectus to address itself in its own language to such as peruse it, and would only express a hope that the judicious care for health and happiness, which is manifest in this instance, may operate extensively with the effect of good example.]

BROOKLINE GYMNASIUM.

From the Prospectus.

Believing the existence of several irresponsible tribunals in a school to be incompatible with the good government and greatest improvement of its members, it is the intention of the instructor to employ no assistants except in the modern languages—he can, therefore, of necessity, receive but a limited number.

As it is intended that the physical recources shall be developed at the same time with those of the mind, the enclosures have been made to embrace several acres of land, which are to be occupied chiefly as a play-ground and by apparatus for gymnastic exercises. It is unnecessary; at this day, to discuss the necessity of regular exercise to the health. It is too late to tell us that children find sufficient exercise in their plays, without any systematic course of instruction. And, indeed, setting aside the fact that but few of the muscles are called into action in the ordinary sports of children, gymnastics is believed to be very important in its effects on the mind. There is no stronger motive to exertion than the conviction of gradual and constant improvement, whether in relation to the body or the mind, and a conviction also, that this improvement has been the result of repeated efforts. In the exercises of the gymnasium, the boy feels every day an increase of physical strength—he has palpable evi-

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dence that he can do more than he could the preceding day, and he feels assured that what he cannot master to day, will, by repeated efforts, be entirely in his power tomorrow. The same reasoning, and the same conclusions he will naturally and necessarily carry with him in his mental efforts; and it needs but little argument to show that the mind which is thus convinced of its own powers, of its constantly increasing recources, must make a proportionate advancement.

Besides, it is essential to the happiness as well as to the greatest improvement of pupils, that all distance, all reserve, on their part should be removed—that they should rather look upon their instructer, as one who is deeply interested in their improvement and happiness, than as one who is appointed merely to listen to their repetitions of a formal lesson. By constantly associating with him on familiar terms, in exercises, which, in themselves, have a tendency to promote cheerfulness of spirits and kind feelings, they gradually learn to connect him with the recollection of scenes which have afforded them pleasure, and thus insensibly to regard him and themselves as sustaining toward each other the relation of parent and children, with a mutual obligation to respect each other's feelings and promote each other's good.

In pursuance of these views a building has been erected in which gymnastic apparatus has been fitted up, and in which the boys will follow a regular course of exercises, every day, under the immediate direction of the instructer.

A piece of ground has been set apart expressly for a play-ground where those games which combine healthful exercise and amusement will always be encouraged. Frequent bathing, too, is deemed essential to health—a room for this purpose has, accordingly, been provided, to which access will be permitted as often as shall be thought expedient. An apartment is also reserved to be occupied as a reading-room and library—which will be a room of general resort for the boys when not engaged in school or at their out-door exercises, and in which will be deposited a collection of books for general reading, selected with express reference to the wants of boys of different ages and different degrees of advancement.

As respects the government of his school, the instructer intends that it shall be parental—he will appeal to his pupils' reason rather than to their fears—will be guided by a knowledge of each boy's peculiar temper and susceptibility of impressions, rather than by a code of laws, which shall award, in all cases, pre-established penalties to prescribed offences. Corporal punishment, it is believed, may be entirely dispensed with, and a parental influence substituted for the distant severity of the master. Let every boy be made to feel, that on his own conduct depends the estimation in which he is held by his instructer and his classmates, and there can be little danger of his allowing himself to sacrifice it.

The course of instruction will involve a knowledge of every thing necessary for the preparation of boys for college or for the counting room, including the higher branches of mathematics and their applications, and the modern languages—in this latter department the instructer will be assisted by native teachers. Those who commence, at this school, the study of the languages, whether ancient or modern, will begin with the use of literal interlineal translations, and after having well fixed in the mind the signification of most of the common words of the language, will study its construction by the use of the grammar.

Apparatus will be provided for experiments in natural philosophy and chemistry, of which sciences the most important principles will be communicated in familiar lectures, to all who are sufficiently advanced to profit by them.

In all branches of learning the instruction will be as practical as possible. The instructer will not consider his duty as performed by listening two or three times a day to the conning of an appointed task. He will, in all possible cases, dispense with the use of text books, and give instruction orally, believing that what is communicated by the teacher, and illustrated in such simple terms as a

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knowledge of the difficulties of the subject, and the capacities of his hearers may suggest, will be listened to with more interest and advantage than the too often dry and abstruse speculations of authors—not that authors of literary and scientific works and compilers of school books have not communicated their ideas clearly, but because young minds, in order to understand a subject fully and distinctly, require that it should be held up to them in a variety of lights—that principles, in order to make a lasting impression, should be many times repeated and illustrated in the most familiar terms. This is particularly practicable in Arithmetic, and some of the higher branches of Mathematics, on account of the admirable facilities which inductive reasoning has of late been made to furnish in this department. Learners have heretofore been required to commit to memory certain general principles, without knowing whence they were deduced, and then to apply them mechanically to particular cases. This method will be entirely rejected. Particular examples are to be proposed to learners, and they are then to be allowed to follow their own reason to legitimate conclusions—conclusions which they perceive to be unavoidable and certain. These deductions are no more nor less than the general principles or rules with which the old system sets out.

Those pupils who form a part of his family are to be under the care of the instructer at all hours. Parents may be assured that their children are not to be dismissed after the regular exercises of the day, as of no further interest to him—they are to be watched over at their plays and recreations, as well as at their severer studies—are to be guided in their general reading—are not to be indulged for the sake of quieting their importunities, nor to be denied any innocent indulgences for the sake of teaching them a blind acquiescence in the absolute authority of a master. On the contrary, the instructer will endeavour, by participating in whatever concerns them, to make them feel that what gives them pleasure will always interest himself—to show them that the relation they sustain towards him involves not only the acquisition of a knowledge of books, but a knowledge of the world—the knowledge and the practice of what is manly and generous in conduct and character.

There will be two vacations in the year, one in May and June, and the other in September, each of three weeks.

Terms, $200 per annum for Instruction, Board, Washing, and Mending.—Bedstead, bed, and bedding, to be furnished by the parents.

L. V. HUBBARD.

Brookline, April 1st, 1828.

HIGH SCHOOL OF BUFFALO, NEW-YORK.

Extracts from the Prospectus.

THAT the science of Education, within the last half century, has received astonishingly great improvements, every one conversant with the subject will readily allow:—and among the most important of these improvements, none have shown so conspicuously—have tended so effectually to disseminate knowledge generally—to call out the latent energy of the youthful mind, and to produce that ardent ambition and laudable emulation so particularly desirable among all classes of scholars, as the method of Monitorial or Mutual Instruction. This mode of instruction, we venture to assert, is the only one which is philosophically adapted to the budding talents of the youthful genius, and while we are sanguine in the avowal of our belief, we are fully convinced, that

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by this mode, instruction can be more thoroughly and effectively conveyed, and education more easily diffused and generally disseminated among the great mass of scholars, than can possibly be otherwise effected by any known method. Our mode of instruction, therefore, will be Monitorial.

As to the anticipated extent of erudition to be here acquired, we intend, in our plan, to commence our instructions with the Alphabet, and the rudiments of Language, and to pursue a course of Literature, through the higher walks of Philology and Belles-Lettres; and to communicate a thorough knowledge of the most refined Modern and Living Languages, as well as those of ancient Greece and Rome.

Our contemplated plan, respecting Science, embraces the first notions of numbers, and the first mental and mechanical operations of their representatives, figures; proceeds progressively through the various branches; extends through the higher Mathematics, and to an intimate acquaintance with the principles of Natural and Experimental Philosophy. The general outline of our course here proposed, is embraced in three departments, which we term Introductory, Junior, and Senior.

We do not indulge, however, in the expectation that every scholar who is admitted a member of the High School, will go through a regular course; nor is any particular term assigned as the *minimum* for admission; but each will be admitted according to the wishes of parents or guardians; and to those more advanced students, who have little time to prepare for entering on the active pursuits and business of life, we wish to render our High School, a Technological Institute, from whence the pupil might be transferred to the busy scenes of the world, actually fitted for that sphere in which he is destined to move.

The branch of the High School for the education of Girls, is graduated into the same number of departments; and, in addition to the solid and useful branches, and the advantages in the Senior Department, of the lectures in Chemistry, Mineralogy, Natural History, Natural Philosophy, &c., they will have opportunities, according to the patronage of the Institution, of improving themselves in Drawing, Painting, Music, and other ornamental branches necessary to complete Female Education.

The funds necessary for erecting suitable buildings, during the ensuing season, are already subscribed; in the meantime, as a temporary resort, convenient rooms are procured, and furnished, in which the undertaking is commenced; and, from the healthy and eligible location of our village, the great want of Scientific and Literary Institutions in the surrounding country; the moderate charge for tuition; the known reputation of the Principal, Mr. Jonathan Dodge, and the confidence in his appointment of able Professors and assistant Teachers; we anticipate no small share of that liberal patronage, which an enlightened public is wont to bestow.

Buffalo, N. Y. Feb. 1, 1828.

Josiah Trowbridge, Reuben B. Heacock, Heman B. Potter, Thomas C. Love, John G. Camp, William Hodge, Henry Kip, Ebenezer Johnson, Joseph Stocking, John B. Hicks, Barent I. Staats, William Ketchum, George Colt, Elijah D. Efner, Abner Bryant, Trustees of the Buffalo High School, Association.

Extracts from the By-Laws of the Buffalo High School Association.

Section 3. Registers shall be kept under the direction of the Principal, in which shall be entered the names of all the scholars, the date of their admission, department, promotion, and discharge from school.

Section 4. The Principal is to appoint and employ such professors, or assistant teachers, in the several departments, as may be deemed necessary for the good reputation and rapid advancement of the school—warranted by the pecuniary prosperity of the Institution.

Section 5. Lectures on Chemistry, Mineralogy, Natural History, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, and other Sciences, will be delivered at the High

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School, which the scholars in the senior department may attend, free of expense.

Section 6. An annual public examination of the High School, shall take place by the direction and arrangement of the Principal, under the auspices of the board of Trustees.

Section 8. The exercises of each department of the High School shall commence with reading a chapter, or part thereof, from the sacred scriptures, but no catechism or instruction in the peculiar tenets of any particular religious denomination whatever, shall be introduced or used in the High School.

Section 10. Regular attendance of the scholars will be insisted on, and records kept, under direction of the Principal, of the attendance or absence of each throughout the term or session.

Section 14. The Buffalo High School shall be in session the amount of forty four weeks in each year, and may be divided into two sessions or four quarters, at the discretion of the Principal.

Section 15. An extra charge, from the term prices hereafter mentioned, may be made, for the French, Spanish, German, or Italian language: and in the Female department, for Music, Drawing, Painting, Lace or fine Needle Work.

Section 17. The course of Instruction, shall be as follows:—

Introductory Department. Alphabet; Spelling; Reading; Writing on Slates; first notions of Drawing and of Numbers; Elements of Arithmetic, mental and mechanical as far as through the first four rules; Elementary branches of Grammar and Geography; some branches of Natural History; Gymnastics; and whatever else may be deemed proper or important.

Junior Department. Former studies continued; Writing, on Paper; Grammar; Geography, principally by Maps; Arithmetic through Proportion; Elocution; continuance of Natural History; Linear Drawing; use of the Globes; Gymnastics; and other branches, if deemed expedient.

Senior Department. Former studies completed; Reading; Spelling by dictation; Writing; ornamental Penmanship; Arithmetic complete, with all the *rationale* of its principles; Grammar and Geography complete; projection and delineation of Maps; Book-Keeping; Algebra; Geometry; Linear Drawing and descriptive Geometry; plane and spherical Trigonometry; Astronomy; Mensuration; Navigation; Surveying, with a course of Civil and Topographical Engineering; Conic Sections; Dialling; Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish languages; Ancient Geography; Antiquities; History; Elocution; Composition; Chemistry; Mineralogy; Natural Philosophy; Gymnastics; with such other branches of science or language as may be required; and in the Female department, Fine and Ornamental Needle Work; Music; Drawing, and Painting.

Section 18. The payment of the price of Tuition shall be made to the Principal in advance, and on the admission of any scholar after the commencement of a term, the tuition shall be calculated and paid to the next regular term day.

Section 19. The price of tuition, except as specified in the 15th section of this article, shall not be varied from the following rates.—Introductory Department $3; Junior $5; Senior $7; Fuel in the Junior and Senior Departments, 25 cents—Pens and Ink in the Junior and Senior departments, 37 1-2 cents per quarter.

MOUNT PLEASANT CLASSICAL INSTITUTION, AMHERST, MASS.

[The following account of this flourishing school is taken from an Exposition of the plan of instruction and discipline &c. The views of education expressed in this interesting paper have been formed with much judicious caution, and, with a very evident regard to the feelings and the character of youth. The

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scheme of instruction is liberal and elevated in its arrangements; and those who have planned it have commenced their undertaking with no ordinary degree of zeal, and with a very flattering success.]

In a Prospectus issued in January 1827, were briefly exhibited the design and plan of this Institution. The classes in the various departments were organized on the 1st of June, and the chapel dedicated on the following Sabbath. The number of Instructers is at present *nine*,—of pupils, many of whom have entered on a course of study embracing several years, *sixty-eight*.

As at the 'Institut d' Education' at Hofwyl, Switzerland, and the Academic and Commercial Gymnasia of Germany, boys are received at a very early age. Those at present with us are from the age of *four* to *sixteen*,—are members of one little community, of *one family*, in which, so far as possible, the *law of love*, exercised in a constant supervision extending to every-day thought and action, is made to supersede the necessity of a severer police. On this subject, lest we should seem to speak of an ideal state of things, we invite the strictest scrutiny.

It may not be irrevelant to remark in a single word, that the object of this Institution is to combine the highest advantages of public and private education by a liberal, and necessarily expensive provision of instruction in the various departments of Ancient and Modern Learning, Commercial Theory, &c.—by a regular and systematic course of physical culture in the Gymnasium, and that moral and religious influence which contributes to fit man for the high purposes of existence.

Our business is to gird the human spirit for the warfare of life, to develope and direct its sterner and nobler energies,—to 'plant germs whose fruit is for eternity.'

The history of our little commonwealth, while it has always kept before us the fact, that we have to do with the elements of human nature, has corroborated an opinion which we have long cherished, that, since the character receives its impress, in a very great degree, from the circumstances and influences under which it is formed, if a community, secluded from the contagion of indolent and vicious example, be pervaded by a pure and elevated sense of *right*, and a chastened and well directed enthusiasm, it will exhibit very much of the excellent and lovely of character. And here we would be distinctly understood as opening for our *text-book* the Christian scriptures—as knowing and teaching no other morality than that of the Bible. The practical business of education, contemplating as it does, the developement and culture of the intellect, of the moral affections, of the physical nature of man, looks only on the title page of the volume, when it forgets his higher destinies. The first impulse given to the human soul should recognize the *spirit* of the *Christian Philosophy*; the simple principles of the science of Heaven should suggest the earliest motives of action; the serious, yet rational and cheerful piety of the Bible, during the whole period of Education, should be regarded as the crowning grace of character; and this we maintain is most entirely consistent with a refined and cherished taste for intellectual pleasures. The mind which has been nurtured in the chastening and purifying atmosphere of *truth*, may not indeed bend in idolatrous worship at the altar of the old philosophy, nor chant its morning and evening song in the temple of Grecian beauty; but so long as the principles of beauty, the modifications of emotion and sentiment and the laws which govern our intellectual operations remain the same, it will never cease to admire the gifted genius of other ages and nations, embodied in the treasures of classic literature.

In intellectual culture we deem the philosophy of Bacon that of common sense—thus proceeding from particulars to generals—advancing from elementary principles through the luminous path of truth, the mind, accustomed from the vividness and clearness of its own perceptions, to an intimate and entire acquaintance with its powers, learns to confide with safety in its own operations. It should be the business of this culture to acquaint the mind with itself—to

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impart 'quickness of investigation, patience of research, the power of grappling with difficulties—accuracy of thought and clearness of reasoning—to form the judgment, refine the taste, instil delicacy of feeling, vivid perception of poetical beauty and moral excellence'—in a word, to place all the faculties of the intellect under the control of a well regulated attention. Every effort of instruction should, we conceive, have a bearing, more or less direct, upon these results. The mind will then take care of itself—limiting its pupilage, not by the enactments of the Senatus Academicus, but by the boundaries of human life—its efforts, not by the known boundaries of human science, but by the wide range of possibility. Happily the mind is so constituted, that in acquiring this self-control it furnishes itself with rich and various knowledge.

The Gymnasium, which, from the period of the Grecian and Roman Palæstræ to the times of Mercurialis and Jahn, had hardly been a subject of speculation, has come at length to claim its appropriate place in the business of education. Nothing, we conceive, can be more evident to common sense reflection, than that the equilibrium of all the powers, which the very constitution of our nature suggests as of the last importance in the formation of character, must be sacrificed, without an early, systematic and contined course of physical culture. Of this we are most fully convinced. The lessons of our Gymnastic grounds, therefore, under the direction of a Master, are, during nearly the whole year, as regular as those of the class rooms. From this course we have already realized the most beneficial results, in every case of debilitated constitution.

There can be no doubt, we think, that the Government of such a community, with its own public sentiment, and it own atmosphere of moral feeling, should be, in its grand features, strictly parental. No other, than the guardian spirit of parental influence, extending its vigilant, yet affectionate supervision to the whole history of sentiment and action,—blending its holier sympathies at the altar of the common Father—yet sustaining its own prerogative by a mild, but unwavering decision, that is rather felt than communicated by language, can successfully regulate and chasten the elastic and buoyant temperament of youth. There is an avenue to 'the heart's deep fount of feeling' which we endeavour to make familiar—for it opens 'the treasures of the snow'—and the first characters drawn there should be—affection—duty.

A strictly parental government, will, however, if the family be numerous, exercise discretion in reference to the details of its executive. In the exercise of such discretion, the nature of circumstances—and the operation of the laws and motives of human action under given circumstances will be carefully considered.

The genius of the free institutions of this country developes the republican principles of our nature at a very early period of life. It were erroneous however to conclude, on the one hand, that the American youth, therefore, are in all respects competent to govern themselves; or on the other, that it offers no violence to these principles, to subject them entirely to despotic power. We would draw neither conclusion; but from the fact, since we conceive it such, receive a practical suggestion,—making our first object to produce and sustain a correct tone of public sentiment—then to introduce—always under modifications perfectly understood—the republican spirit only so far as manifestly contributes to the best good. This, it may be allowed us, perhaps, to say we think we have done.

As every feature of our executive details is perfectly simple, we introduce them here rather as an illustration of the preceding remarks. From the whole body a Class of Honor is formed, consisting only of those who are distinguished by unexceptionable deportment, a just sense of right, and unimpeached moral courage. These are consequently for the most part from the Senior boys. They are proposed, from time to time, by ourselves, as we deem them eligible, and are received or rejected by their fellows, according to their estimation of their qualifications. From this 'Class of Honor,' thus constituted, an offender is, at

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our discretion, according to the nature of the offence,* allowed to elect his jury of twelve. These are assembled, (one of us always presiding and conducting the examination)—the evidence, or which is more common, if the charge be well grounded, the frank avowal of the accused, is heard—opportunity taken, while the individual is present, for remarks upon the nature of the offence, the verdict rendered—and if guilty, the punishment awarded. The right is always retained by us of mitigating the verdict, or of pardon. The result has been in every instance, though these sessions have been of rare occurrence, most satisfactory. The individual sees in the verdict, when punished, the frown of public sentiment—the strong expression of offended right, which cannot fail to be understood and felt. It will have been perceived, however, that while we have entire confidence in the operation of these principles, thus modified, we regard the happiest feature of such a government the precautionary and controlling influence of the Law of Love.

On the subject of motives, we have already intimated, that the highest class is to be derived from our highest and most sacred relations;—the next in order, as we conceive, are those arising from the filial relation. Allied to this class is that which has to do with the public sentiment.

In respect to the first—the one pervading impression of an omniscient and omnipresent Deity as inculcated by the breathing eloquence of nature—the 'line upon line,' read out at the altar of our morning and evening solemnities—the faithful and affectionate preaching of the word—the '*Numen adest*,' which should appear over the classic desk—all should conspire to excite the highest efforts of intellect, while they form the heart to whatever is exalted and refined in sentiment—pure and ennobling in christianized human sympathy.

The two latter classes of motives, we conceive, are also of great importance—those derived from the filial relation—and those which arise from the relation sustained to the community. Hence a system which shall bring distinctly before the eye of the parent and instructers;—which shall at periodical seasons present to the body of pupils, an exact transcript of daily individual history, both as to conduct and recitation, rarely fails powerfully to influence the will. This we realize in our system of weekly reports.

The whole number of boys, according to the relative situation of their dormitories, for purposes of inspection, is divided into five sections. Over each is placed a Præfect, whose duty it is to notice any departure from established laws of correct deportment. The report of each, dating its first items on Friday evening, closes the week on the following Friday afternoon. An abstract of the whole is presented on Friday evening, at the Meeting of Instructers, by the Auditor of Reports. At this meeting, the Reports from the several departments of instruction are presented by the gentlemen sustaining these departments. The whole, after careful examination, are referred to the close of the class duties at 12 o'clock on the following day, (Saturday,) when all the pupils are assembled in the chapel for the hearing of Reports and a familiar lecture, upon conduct, manners, &c. At this session, occupying usually an hour and a half, the abstracts of the reports are publicly read, and when necessary, commented upon. After being thus disposed of, they are passed into volumes prepared for the purpose, and always accessible to parents and friends. Parents are expected to request from their sons faithful abstracts from these reports always made under the direction of the Clerk.†

* Only the few more serious offences are thus referred—others always decided at once by ourselves.

† The principle on which the class Report is made, should be fully in the possession of parents.—A maximum, 3, is fixed upon, representing the most perfect recitation or exercise which it is in the power of the best talents of the sections, the stage of advancement being considered, to exhibit. The degree of imperfection is represented by fractional deductions—thus, 2. 9.——2. 6.

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There are other motives, to which, in a very few cases, we have occasion to resort. When the current of moral feeling has been poisoned, and the intellectual furniture wrecked by previous injudicious management, the higher incentives to exertion fail of effect. In such cases, (which happily have been with us rare,) we are willing patiently to range the whole world of means and motives, excluding only those of a strictly severe corporal nature. If, after a short period these are unsuccessful, our only course is *dismission*. The principle, that the many should not be corrupted by the individual, forbids that we should continue a boy of this character for a long experiment. The most powerful of all influences in such cases, is strong public sentiment, reprobating every species of vice in mental or moral habit.

While we sincerely commiserate the parent who is afflicted with such a son, we feel obliged to be understood, as rejecting every application of this kind—as requiring the most undoubted testimonials from the instructers from whose hands candidates for admission come to us—with a frank statement of the intellectual and moral habits from parents and guardians themselves.

[The whole pamphlet from which the preceding paragraphs are extracted, abounds in useful thoughts on education; and we regret the impossibility of transcribing it throughout, in our present number. We shall return to it, hower, at our next opportunity.—It is documents, we think, such as this and the two which precede it, that afford the most satisfying evidence of the progress of general sentiment on the subject of education, as a most efficient means of promoting human happiness.]

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Johnson's English Dictionary, as improved by Todd and abridged by Chalmers; with Walker's pronouncing Dictionary, combined. To which is added Walker's Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture Proper Names. Boston. Charles Ewer and T. Harrington Carter. 1828. 18mo. pp. 1156.

We have, at present, barely space to mention this valuable work. It commends itself to extensive patronage and general use, by the sanction of the eminent names which it bears upon its title; and to the American public it comes with the additional recommendation of the editorial care of Mr. J. E. Worcester.

This Dictionary seems to us decidedly the most useful and satisfactory that has yet been offered, for general use, in our language. It combines advantages too numerous to be adequately mentioned in the room we can afford in our present number, but to which we shall take occasion to revert, in detail, at a future opportunity. We are glad to observe that a school edition of this work is in preparation, corresponding no doubt, in merit, to the larger dictionary, now under notice. We would leave this work with the expression of our hope that all teachers who give instruction in the English language, will avail themselves of its aid.

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Phædri Fabulæ Expurgatæ. Accedunt Tractatus de Versu Iambico, Notulæ Anglicæ, et Quæstiones. In usum Scholæ Bostoniensis. Bostoniæ; Sumptibus Hilliard, Gray, Little, et Wilkins. 1827. 12mo. pp. 130.

To teachers who value the assistance of neat and accurate editions of the books used in classical instruction, this little volume will be very acceptable. It forms another useful contribution to the improvement of education in the department in which the school from which it proceeds is so justly eminent. By the labours of Mr. Gould, the Principal of that seminary, and his assistant, Mr. Leverett, preparatory education has received the aid of several excellent books, among which our readers will recollect, as mentioned in former notices, a revised edition of Adams' Grammar, an improved Ovid and Liber Primus. Besides which is a valuable edition of Virgil, and a Juvenal now in press.

It would, we think, be a great benefit to classical schools generally, if similar editions of all the preparatory authors were to follow the books already published. With a few honourable exceptions, the common editions of these works are in a very bad condition both as to text and typography.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Love of Admiration, or Mary's Vist to B——. A Moral Tale. By a Lady. New Haven. A. H. Maltby. 1828. 18mo. pp. 160.

This volume belongs properly to the class of minor religious novels, and will fall more properly under the notice of the religious periodicals of the day, than of a work devoted to the general object of education. We may take the opportunity, however, to say that it is neatly executed, is written with evident talent, and aims at a good moral lesson.

A History of the Kings and Queens of France, with Engravings representing them in their Costumes. Translated from the French. Boston. Samuel G. Goodrich. 1828. pp. 140.

This interesting book forms a kind of biographical chronology, applied to the history of France. It is intended for young children, to whom chronology is a dry study without the assistance of biography.

The engravings which are generally executed with excellent taste and a spirited expression, form a very useful part of the work. They are intended to give a definitive notion of the costume of the successive sovereigns, as will be understood by reference to p. 138, where the progress of fashion is delineated in a very expressive style. The work is not, of course, intended to furnish a full history of France, but a selection of the most striking and important events, as connected with the lives and actions of the monarchs. It resembles, in this respect, Scott's Tales of a Grandfather, but is more brief in its incidents as it is designed chiefly for chronological purposes; while much general information connected with the progress of society, is given in separate chapters, which cannot fail to prove very instructive as well as entertaining to young readers.

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COMMON EDUCATION.*

ADVANTAGES OF GENERAL EDUCATION.

[From the First Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, to the Legislature of Maryland, Dec. 1827.]

'*The best service that can be rendered to a country, next to giving it liberty, lies in diffusing the mental improvement, equally essential to the preservation and enjoyment of the blessing.*'

SUCH are the words of the sage of Montpelier, addressed to the writer of this report, and no freeman who is qualified to preserve and enjoy his proper title will attempt to impugn the great truth which they assert; and to pursue the language of another patriot, and distinguished philanthropist and orator, in reference to the means which human wisdom can devise for augmenting the public virtue and intelligence, it may be truly said that, these powerful agents summon to their aid all those internal improvements, which cheapening, expediting, and facilitating the transmission of every species of moral, political, and social intelligence, whether by books, letters, or friendly communion, supply wings to knowledge, and winnow its healthful influence over all the dwellings and pursuits of man—guiding and quickening the operations of laborious industry, and ingenious art—solacing the rest of wearied diligence; supplying with thought the vacuity of suspended action; instructing and delighting the leisure of accumulated wealth; detecting the artifices of political intrigue; confounding the schemes of profligate ambition; animating the patriot's hope, and nerving the hero's arm—and we must all admit that the most important end of education in this Union is the diffusion of knowledge among the great body of the people. This truth is engrafted upon the political constitutions of some of our states, and practically manifested by their laws. And when we compute how large a portion of our happiness depends on the wisdom and stability of our pecu-

* Articles in this department will henceforward be arranged so as to occupy the latter part of every Number.—*Ed.*

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liar legislation, we cannot but feel the deepest solicitude for the common spread of this blessing.

The beneficial effects of a systematic course of education in New-York, from which in fact our system is mainly drawn, are happily portrayed in a recent message of the distinguished governor of that state—he says, in substance, that the first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government is the encouragement of literature—it is the precursor and protector of free institutions under which we may confide as the conservative power, that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption, and violence.—A good system of common education may be considered as the '*palladium of our freedom*,' for no apprehension of its subversion can be entertained as long as the great body of the people are enlightened.

In further support of this opinion, and to prove that independent of political considerations, the public economy is concerned in the encouragement and maintenance of this interest, the following facts are presented.

1. That all the official reports of New-England, New-York, and Pennsylvania, testify that the cost of education has been reduced by the operation of modern improvements, such as those herein proposed, to one fifth of what it was under the old system of private schools.

2. That those reports do further prove that the high qualifications and industry of teachers, which are secured in proportion to the certainty of well requited employment, and their responsibility to the public, insure a faithful discharge of their duties and a corresponding improvement in their scholars.

3. That there has been an interesting improvement in the moral character of the people wherever the system of public schools has had a fair experiment.

The Superintendent cannot omit a passing remark upon an objection, or rather an imaginary difficulty, which has been raised by some in opposition to the primary schools—it is the supposed impracticability of procuring an adequate supply of qualified teachers. To this it is deemed sufficient to answer, that, beginning with the materials at present in the state, in progression those materials will ameliorate ; and in fine, the required means will be guaranteed and insured from the natural effect of its operation. And, in addition to this resource, the act for the dissemination of literature, may be viewed as an

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important auxiliary; and, in process of time, the establishment of a central school for teachers, with branches in the several counties, may be considered as indispensable to the greatest practical extension of its benefits.

IMPROVEMENT OF COMMON EDUCATION.

[From a pamphlet containing the Revised Statute relative to Common Schools in the State of New-York.]

One of the principal reasons why the standard of education in the common schools has not been more elevated, is to be found in the unwillingness on the part of the school districts, to make adequate compensation to teachers of approved talents and qualifications. How else does it happen, that at a time when the merchant is overstocked with clerks, and the professions of law and of medicine are thronged with students; there is such a lamentable deficiency in the number of those who have the inclination and the ability, to engage in the business of instruction? Is it not to be ascribed to the more liberal encouragement offered by other employments, compared with the compensation of school teachers? Institutions for the formation of instructers are desirable; but the education of teachers would be unavailing, unless the districts could appreciate the importance of affording such compensation as would command their services. There could be no other guaranty, that those who were educated for the purpose, would engage in the business of teaching. Other causes may have their influence; but the seat of the difficulty may be traced to the disinclination in the districts, to make adequate compensation for the required talents and services. This is demonstrated by the fact, that those districts which adopt a liberal course, have able teachers and good schools. The business of education should be committed to the best talents in the country; and it is in vain to think of procuring the choicest fruits without paying the market price. The monthly wages of the teachers of district schools, are frequently one third less than the amount paid to experienced clerks, or journeymen mechanics in the same vicinity; and what is still more discouraging to the teacher, he finds employment not more than half the year. In consequence of this state of things, many of the common schools are kept by per-

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sons who resort to the occupation as a temporary expedient, to aid them in acquiring some other profession. They are without the experience, which is so important to an instructer of youth, and can have very little ambition to establish a reputation in an employment to which they have resorted for temporary purposes. It is desirable that the inhabitants of the district should feel a deeper interest, and give more attention to the schools, where the characters of their children are in some measure to be formed. Duty as well as interest prompt them to such a course. If under the charge of an able instructer, a child can be advanced as far at twelve years of age, as is usual in the ordinary mode at eighteen; then there is a clear saving of six years, to be devoted to the acquisition of additional knowledge, or applied to the service of the parent. It is evident that such results are attainable, under the improved systems, and the best instructers; and it is the part of wisdom to adopt such improvements as have been tested and sanctioned by experience. Notwithstanding the rapid advances which this state has made in population, in wealth, in agriculture, manufactures and internal improvements; it is not to be denied, that the mode of instruction in the mass of the common schools, has remained almost stationary. This remark is not applied disparagingly, but in reference to the state of common schools, compared with that elevated character which it is desirable they should attain.

The course of instruction in the common schools, ought to be adapted to the business of life, and to the actual duties which may devolve upon the persons instructed. In a government where every citizen has a voice in deciding the most important questions, it is not only necessary that every person should be able to read and write, but that he should be well instructed in the rights, privileges, and duties of a citizen. Instruction should be coextensive with universal suffrage. An unenlightened mind is not recognized by the genius of a republican government. The constitution of Peru (South America), provides that after the year 1840, no one shall enjoy the privileges of citizenship, who is not able to read and write. This is a much more rational qualification for voting than the freehold test, which has recently been abolished in this state. In addition to becoming acquainted with the history of his own town, county, state, and nation; the scholar should be made acquainted with the laws relating to the 'duties and privileges of towns'—the manner in which the business of the

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county is transacted, and the organization and powers of the government. As soon as a young man enters upon active life, he is called upon to discharge the various duties of a citizen, and the necessary instruction to qualify him for an intelligent discharge of duties, so important to himself and his country, should form a part of his education.

It is important that the rising generation should be well instructed in the history of their own country. Those who are to be the future guardians of our free government, should be made acquainted with the toil and suffering, which it cost to establish the liberties which they enjoy. In perpetuating the example which our country offers to the world, *that man is capable of self-government*, it is vitally important that the means should be afforded in the common schools, of acquiring a sound knowledge of the principles and acts of the revolution—of the cause and consequence of independence. A history, every incident of which has a tendency to inspire a reverence for the institutions of our country, ought to be 'familiar as household words,' to those, on whose intelligence and patriotism, the future hopes of the republic are based.

A. C. FLAGG,
Superintendent of Common Schools.

MONITORIAL INSTRUCTION.

[An unusual degree of attention has of late been excited on this subject in the city of Boston. Within a few years, the monitorial system has been introduced in several private schools, and more recently in some of those which, as public schools, fall under the cognizance of the School Committee. The result has been very satisfactory to many members of that Board; as, in relation particularly to the primary schools, may be observed from the Report on the trial made of the monitorial method in those schools, which is presented in detail in the last No. of the Journal of Education.

A sub-committee, however, of the school committee, appointed to consider the state of the High School for Girls, thought it expedient that, in lieu of that institution, an arrangement should be made by which the girls at the public schools might attend for a longer period, and apply themselves to higher branches of education at their respective schools.* To render such a

* See Intelligence in Journal of Education, No. 26. p. 124.

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change more easy and more beneficial, it was proposed by the sub-committee that several very considerable alterations should be made on the whole system of the public schools of the city. The primary schools were to be diminished in number; and the lowest or youngest class was to return from the 'grammar' to the primary schools; and, as auxiliary to these measures, it was proposed to introduce the monitorial system into all the public schools of the city.

Much excitement of the public mind was produced by the arrangements proposed, which many deemed injurious in their tendency in regard to the school system of the city, and to the character of instruction in the schools individually. The merits of the system of mutual instruction became implicated in the general question; and no slight opposition was made to its introduction. Many objections to it were urged with various ability in several of the newspapers; and when the subject came before the whole school committee, it was deemed imprudent to attempt any further change than that of introducing the monitorial system into two of the 'grammar' schools by way of experiment.

The controversy on the subject of mutual instruction, which has for some time lain comparatively dormant, has been in this way revived; and as it is one of great moment to common schools generally, and as we would not obtrude our own opinion on this topic, to the exclusion of those of others who think differently, we intend to lay before our readers as satisfactory a view as we can give of the arguments on each side of the question.

In our present number, we can go no farther than to make the following extracts from the Report in favour of the new method. In our next, we shall give the objections to it, as offered by some of those who are opposed to it.]

Your sub-committee have turned their attention to that ancient system, on which these schools are now for the most part, taught, and also to that other system, called the 'monitorial,' adopted elsewhere, in Europe and America, and with unexampled success, in connexion with the experience, and the opinions entertained concerning it in this city and the practicability and the means of introducing it into our schools.

That a wish has long been entertained by many of our intelligent citizens, to have it thus introduced, and that its introduction has met with obstacles, hitherto insurmountable, is well

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known. It is proper, therefore, that the advantages to be expected from the monitorial system should be distinctly stated, and the practical difficulties, in the way of its introduction, examined, and if possible obviated.

The advantages of the monitorial system in comparison with the old system, may briefly be thus stated. To the student it makes learning less irksome, by simplifying and facilitating his progress, it gives to instruction more interest, by alternation and variety of exercise, in which physical and intellectual action are combined; it keeps attention awake and interested, by permitting no moment of idleness or listlessness; its effects on the habits, character, and intelligence of youth are highly beneficial; disposing their minds to industry, to readiness of attention, and to subordination, thereby creating in early life a love of order, preparation for business, and acquaintance with the relative obligations and duties both of pupil and instructer.

To the master also, it renders teaching less irksome and more interesting, giving an air of sprightliness and vivacity to his duties, exciting the principles of emulation among his scholars, aiding him by the number of assistants he can thus employ, and, by relieving him from the constant necessity of direct supervision of every individual, capacitates him to concentrate his mind and efforts on points and objects of the most importance, difficulty, and responsibility. To all which it may be added, though a consideration less important, yet not to be overlooked, that it is an immense saving both of time and money, in consequence of the far greater numbers which can be taught, as well by this mode, as a smaller number can be by the former.

It will be sufficient under this head, to state that in New-York three masters, in three distinct schools, teach fifteen hundred and forty seven boys, being an average of upwards of five hundred each. In our schools, the same number of boys would require seven schools and fifteen instructers. In New-York a single female teaches a school on this principle, of four hundred. In our schools the average number to an instructress is fifty six. The success and progressive advancement in those schools, is asserted by men deemed competent judges, to be not less than ours. Without predicating any proposition on this statement, it is referred to as a fact, asserted by an authority deemed competent.

The general advantage of the monitorial or mutual instruction system, your sub-committee deem to be no longer hypothetical. They consider it settled to be a great improvement,

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by abundant experience, both in Europe and America, and so justified by the known constitution of the human mind and principles of human action as to be absolutely unquestionable. Indeed, many of its peculiar principles and modes have been adopted, and are now acted upon, more or less, in all our public schools.

It ought to be stated, to the credit of the grammar and writing masters of this metropolis, that they have been as little actuated by the doubt and fears, inseparable from their situation, as was, perhaps, possible.

As they have known for a long time, that a strong opinion existed in the city among very intelligent citizens in favour of the monitorial system, many, if not all of them have gradually introduced some of its principles and modes into the discipline of their schools, as far as they have respectively deemed expedient, or as far perhaps, as from their particular circumstances was practicable.

Your sub-committee, are of opinion that while on the one hand it is the imperious duty of the school committee to proceed forthwith in the introduction of the monitorial and mutual instruction principle into our grammar and writing schools, yet on the other that it should be done gradually and systematically, in one school after another, as fast as, and no faster than local accommodations for that mode of instruction are provided, and that the numbers required of each master to teach should, in the first years, be less than the whole number of his present school, in case he so desire ; or, on his request, that an usher should be allowed him until by familiarity he gain confidence in the system, and in its power.

Your sub-committee are of opinion that the two schools, into which forthwith, and without delay, it ought to be introduced, are the Boylston and the Bowdoin schools ; and for reasons very obvious.

In the former the system has been already in a great measure introduced. During the past year Mr. Fox, the master, has taught both the male and female part of that school, amounting to more than two hundred each, without the aid of an usher, and has applied the monitorial principle as fully as the want of accommodation in the school room would permit. His success has been complete ; satisfactory to the committee of that school; to his pupils ; and to himself. In this single instance he has saved to the city the salary of an usher, amounting to six hundred dollars, and although the children in the vicinity of Broad

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street, of which his school is chiefly composed, do not present the best materials for instruction, yet it is believed, his scholars will compare in the several branches with those of any other school.

Mr. Emerson, the writing master, is also one of our most efficient and intelligent instructers, and it is understood is not unwilling to cooperate in introducing gradually the new system, upon the principles above alluded to, of accommodating the degree of requisition, in point of numbers to be instructed, to the respective opinions of the masters, concerning the capacity of the system, and their practical acquaintance with it.

As there is a room now unoccupied in the Boylston school house, each of their present school rooms may be successively prepared for the introduction of the monitorial system, without any derangement of the exercises of either school, and before the females return to it, in April.

Similar reasons apply to the selection of the Bowdoin for the other school, which shall take the lead to be prepared for the introduction of this system. This has also now an unoccupied school room, which enables an immediate alteration of the respective school rooms, to take place before April, without interfering with the exercises of the schools. Besides, both the masters of the Bowdoin schools are among our most efficient instructers, and not unwilling to cooperate with the city, in this design

REVIEW.

First Principles of English Spelling and Reading, by Caleb H. Snow, M. D. Boston. James Loring. 1828. pp. 72; stereotype.

In a late Number of the Journal we gave a brief notice of this work, such as our limits would permit. As it is a manual which will probably come into extensive use, we revert to it at present for the purpose of making our readers more thoroughly acquainted with its plan and arrangement, and, at the same time, of making a few suggestions relating to methods of instruction at this elementary stage of the learner's progress.

It is a leading opinion with us, in reference to the management of the infant mind, that it should be made to see a connex-

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ion between the subject of its preceding and its present studies, and to feel that it is continually receiving assistance from its past acquisitions, by which the more easily to accomplish its present objects. A sense of this mutual dependence of to day and to morrow is calculated to give the kind of animation and interest in our pursuits, which is most likely to make them useful to us. The plan of the *First Principles* is in strict conformity with these ideas. The author, we understand, was convinced that children would read more easily words in their Testament which they had learnt in their *spelling lessons*, and was also well persuaded that such as may acquire the habit of reading the various style of the different sacred penmen, with accuracy, would be little liable to stammer when put to other reading lessons. He therefore set about the task of selecting all the words of the New Testament, and arranging them in the order suited to his purpose. And for the accommodation of younger children, to whom it is inexpedient to hand a book so large, he has added a portion of reading lessons adapted to their age.

The spellings are divided into forty three lessons, including the alphabet, which constitutes the first. Each lesson is marked by its proper number, both in figures and in letters,—thus, XXXII. *Thirty second Lesson.* 32. This plan may serve to familiarize the learner with his figures and letters for numbers, which is no less a useful than pleasing portion of juvenile acquirements. We think our first perceptions of superiority or inferiority of talent, at school, were connected with the recitation of those lessons in the *Child's Companion.*

The alphabet is presented in a variety of forms, the first of which occupying one page, gives the capital letters in one column, and the corresponding small letters in a parallel column, at sufficient distance to form distinct resting points for the eye, which is led from the one to the other by a line of dots. The apparent waste of space is more than compensated to the learner, by the greater facility with which he may fix upon the individual letters. The propriety of teaching a child the alphabet first in the established order of the letters has been doubted by some, fearing that it would be learned only by rote ; to us it appears important that this order should be made familiar, even if it be before a single letter can be distinguished. The force of association is soon felt by the memory ; the child will recollect that such a letter stands in such a place in the column ; if when he is advanced to the second page where a table of similar letters is inserted, he fails to give a right name to the let-

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ters, he should be turned back to his first page, and see its prototype; which if he cannot name at once, he should be led to it from A downwards.*

The *Italic* letters,† so called, are arranged so as to give the capital and small letters in union, beginning with *Az* and ending with *Za*. We have all witnessed the pleasure of some promising child on being able to repeat his alphabet backwards: such things are small, but so is a drop of water or a particle of quicksilver. Another table follows, in which the small italics are arranged according to their powers, in fine lines, first the vowels, then the semivowels, mutes, liquids, and double consonants, in their turn. Being once fixed in the memory, time will not eradicate it; and the child will feel the advantage of it, when he enters upon the threshold of his grammar.

In the lesson of words of two letters there is a deviation from the common routine of other spelling books. The two sounds of the two letters are brought in apposition, to show the learner at once the changes of which they are susceptible; and the capitals and small letters are duly intermixed, to familiarize him with both: thus, we have *Ab*, *Ba*, *Eb*, *Be*, &c. instead of *ab*, *eb*, *ib*, *ob*, *ub*. A single inspection of this lesson, we believe, will convince instructers of the preference due to this plan; and if it is in reality better, there can be no doubt that for the use of children, it ought to be adopted.

The third lesson consists of the words of three letters, found in the New Testament. They are arranged in fourteen sections, according to their vowel sounds. To avoid confusion, most of those words which are sounded alike or nearly alike, and variously spelled, are omitted here, and inserted in an appropriate table at the close of the book. The main point in early spelling lessons is to create a habit of accuracy in the young learner, and to furnish him with some criterion by which he may correct his own errors. On this account, perhaps, all such words would better have been omitted; but on reflection it will soon appear that so many of our monosyllables are in that predicament, as to leave the examples too few to answer the purpose of presenting the learner in due time with the words he would encounter in his readings. Hence are introduced here such as occur in the New Testament only in one form, such as *tax*, *ark*, *boy*, &c.

* This familiarity with the order of the alphabet is found of special service in after life, when we are called to the use of dictionaries.

† Though occupying an early page, these letters should not be taught so early as to perplex the infant mind with too many objects at once.

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The *fourth lesson* exemplifies the short and long sounds of the vowels as produced by the final *e*; thus *hat*, *hate*, *sir*, *sire*, &c. and the *fifth* contains examples of the double letters, so called; as, *fee*, *lee*, *fall*, *full*, &c. Then follow in successive lessons the words of four, five, six, and seven letters, each arranged according to the vowel sounds.

(TO BE CONTINUED.)

INTELLIGENCE.

COMMON EDUCATION IN MARYLAND.

[In the legislative session of December, 1825, an act was passed, to "provide for the Public Instruction of Youth in Primary Schools, throughout the State." The date of this important event, will doubtless be often reverted to, as an epoch of vast moment in the history of Maryland. To intelligent and philanthropic minds, a regular provision for public instruction, is the most valuable of all *internal* improvements. The citizens of Maryland, in all future time, probably, will reap a substantial and durable advantage from this act. The object of our present article, is to furnish our readers with a sketch of its more important provisions, drawn from the First Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the same document from which the article on Primary Education in Maryland, was transcribed at p. 145 of last No. of the Journal, and from which the article commencing at p. 141 of our present number, is taken.]

The first and second sections of the act relate to the office and duties of the Superintendent,* which are chiefly the following: to digest and prepare a plan or plans for the public instruction of Youth, throughout the state;†—to organize and improve such system as may be adopted, and such revenues as may, from time to time, be assigned to the objects of the institution;—to prepare and report estimates and expenditures;—to superintend the collection of the revenues appropriated as above.

The third section requires of the justices of the levy court in each of the several counties, in the month of April, or at any special meeting, for that purpose to be called, to appoint nine commissioners of primary schools, for their county; and also a suitable number of discreet persons, not exceeding eighteen, who, together, with the commissioners, shall be inspectors of the said schools.

The fifth section makes it the duty of the commissioners to divide their counties into a suitable and convenient number of school districts, and to alter and regulate the same as prescribed in a subsequent part of the said act; and immediately thereafter to describe and number the same, and to deliver the description and number thereof to the clerk of the county, who is required to receive and record the same.

The eighth section refers to the organization of the school districts, the elec-

* The efficiency given to the system of common education, by putting it under the charge of a Superintendent, may be farther ascertained by reference to the excellent results obtained by this arrangement in the state of New-York. See intelligence relating to common schools in the State of New-York—given in last number of the Journal.

† Of the able manner in which this duty has been discharged, by the present superintendent, our readers can judge, after perusing the interesting sketch of a primary school system, above mentioned.—ED.

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tion of a clerk, trustees, and collector—and the voting of a tax on the resident inhabitants for the purchase of a site for the school house, and to "build, keep in repair, and furnish such school-house with necessary fuel, books, stationary and appendages."

The fourteenth section requires of the trustees a semi-annual report, on or before the first days of April and October in each year, to be made and transmitted to the commissioners of primary schools for the county, which report shall specify the length of time a school has been kept in such district; the amount of monies received by them; the manner in which the same has been expended by them; and, as near as may be the number of white children taught in such district, and the number of white children residing therein, between the age of five and fifteen years.

The seventeenth section makes it the duty of the inspectors to examine all persons who shall offer as candidates for the teaching of primary schools in their counties respectively: and in such examination, that they shall enquire, ascertain and inform themselves as far as may be practicable, of their character and qualifications; and grant certificates, as therein prescribed, to such as may be found worthy.

The eighteenth section empowers the inspectors to annul any certificate given by them or their predecessors, under certain provisions; and enacts a forfeiture for employing a teacher without the proper certificate.

The nineteenth section requires of the inspectors to visit the schools within their counties, once at least in every quarter, and oftener, if they shall deem it necessary—to examine into the state and condition of such schools, both as respects the proficiency of the scholars, and the good order and regularity of the schools; and to give advice and direction to the trustees and teachers as to the government thereof, and the course of studies to be pursued therein.

COMMON SCHOOLS IN RHODE-ISLAND.

From an estimate of the number of schools in this State, published in the R. I. American, it appears that the subject of educating youth is exciting a very lively interest. Exclusive of the schools of different 'grades' in the town of Providence, which are probably about 100, there are in the other towns in Rhode Island over 300. Some of them, however, are not regularly kept all the year. The Legislature has passed a law for the encouragement and support of free schools, that the children of the poor may not rise into life wholly uneducated. The annual sum of $10,000 is to be apportioned among the towns, according to the number of population under 16 years. There are 31 towns in the State; and the supposed number of children necessary to be educated is 35,843.

STATE OF EDUCATION IN NEW-JERSEY.

It is a truth, mournful but undeniable, that there are many thousands of grown persons in this state, who cannot read, and many thousands of children that receive no education.

In proof of this assertion, we would simply refer to the data which the reports from the counties of Sussex Warren, Cumberland, and Cape May have furnished. In these four counties, possessing a population of 49,685 at the last census, there are 2,506 adults unable to read, and 2,241 children that have not adequate means of instruction. Now if we assume these data as the ground of an estimation of the whole state, they will give us the appalling result of nearly fourteen thousand five hundred adult persons who cannot read, and more than twelve thousand children, most of whom receive no education at all.

Report of the New-Jersey Bible Society.

It is to be hoped that legislative measures will be speedily adopted to remove such a reproach to the state, and such a hindrance to its best interests.

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It is gratifying to learn that in the mean time this peculiar field for philanthropic effort is partly occupied by the labours of private beneficence, and that a contribution to the amount of $40,000 has been made for this object.]

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF PHILADELPHIA.

From the Tenth Annual Report of the Controllers of the Public Schools of the First School District of the State of Pennsylvania.

THREE thousand nine hundred and three pupils now attend the schools. The whole number of pupils is distributed thus:

In the Model Schools, Chester-street,	632
First Section, comprising the city of Philadelphia,	1132
Second Section, comprising the Northern Liberties and Kensington,	966
Third and Ninth Sections, comprising Southark and Moyamensing,	1042
Fourth Section, comprising Spring Garden,	131
Total,	3903

At the Common Schools in the country parts of the District, seven hundred children have been taught, and these, added to those instructed on the Lancasterian method, give an aggregate of FOUR THOUSAND SIX HUNDRED AND THREE, who, during the official year now terminated, have been educated at the public expense.

Since the present system was organized in 1818, 24,574 pupils have passed through the schools of mutual instruction, and 2,640 have been taught at the country schools; making the number of children between the ages of 5 and 14 who have partaken of the benefits of education in ten years TWENTY-SEVEN THOUSAND TWO HUNDRED AND FOURTEEN.

From the annexed accounts, examined by the auditors, it will appear that the Controllers have drawn orders upon the County Treasurer for 29,515 dollars and 11 cents, of which sum 16,769 dollars and 79 cents is chargeable to the support of the Lancasterian schools; 5,742 dollars and 17 cents to real estate and school furniture, and 7,003 dollars and 15 cents to education in the country sections. The actual cost of instruction of each pupil, in the schools on the Lancasterian plan, is 4 dollars per annum—of those taught at the ordinary schools 10 dollars per annum, furnishing additional proof of the economy of the improved system, and which ought to recommend it to adoption wherever the population is sufficiently dense.

The experiment mentioned in their last report as then recently commenced in the Model School, of furnishing several permanent monitors better educated than those usually employed in that service, has been amply made, and the Controllers satisfied of the utility of the arrangement, recommend it to the attention of the respective Sections.

The indefatigable principal of the model school, prepared during the past year, a short, but comprehensive manual, by which the operations of the Lancasterian mode of instruction can be easily understood and conducted; the Controllers have had an edition printed for the use of this district, and can supply the work at a very cheap rate for other parts of the state. They would also again bring to the recollection of their fellow citizens of Pennsylvania, that individuals desirous of becoming qualified to teach on the system of mutual instruction, will be admitted free of expense for that purpose, into the model school.

AMERICAN SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.

(*From a late Circular of the Society.*)

The following table exhibits the past operations of this Society.—When it was instituted, there were in connexion with the 'Philadelphia Sunday and

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Adult School Union,' 723 schools, 7300 teachers, and 49,619 scholars; all of which were transferred to the 'American Sunday School Union.'

Years.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Total Tea. & Schol.
In May 1825 there were	1150	11,295	82,697	93,992
" 1826 "	2131	19,298	135,298	
" 1827 "	2600	24,307	174,191	198,498
			Increase in 2 years	104,506

Atthis present time, the 'American Sunday School Union,' gives employment to fourteen printing presses, and prints on an average 432,00 18mo. pages a day. In its several departments there are about 150 persons engaged, exclusive of paper makers. The issues from the Depository, during the first half of the fourth year, beginning in May last, amounted to $26,254, and the receipts for books to $20,111.

There at least 2,500,000 children, between the ages of five and fourteen, in the United States alone. Of this number, 250,000 are receiving the benefits of Sunday school instruction.

NOTICES.

Sequel to the Analytical Reader; in which the original design is extended so as to embrace an Explanation of Phrases and Figurative Language. By Samuel Putnam. Portland. Shirley and Hyde. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins. 1828. 12mo. pp. 300.

The book, to which this volume forms the sequel, we have mentioned more than once in the Journal; and have expressed our opinion that teachers would find it serviceable in aiding their exertions to render the daily reading lessons of their schools intelligible and useful. Fortunately for the young, there are many excellent Readers, with which every school may now be supplied; all of which aim at something more than merely to furnish the requisite sentences and paragraphs for the practice of reading, and generally convey much useful information. Among these, the Analytical Reader and its Sequel are peculiarly entitled to rank as eminently valuable, for the copious exercise which they afford for the cultivation of an early and accurate knowledge of the phraseology of the English language. This important point in education, has, we fear, been too much overlooked; and we are gratified with the appearance of the present volume as an indication of an increasing attention to good instruction in our native tongue.

The plan of the work is thus mentioned in the preface to the Sequel.

'We have confined the text of nearly all our selections to the left hand page, thus reserving one half of the space to the various objects which we will now proceed to designate.

'One prominent purpose, to which we have devoted the right hand page, is definitions. All the words, which were attended with any difficuly, we have transferred to this page, and appended to them their meaning. In this way no recurrence will be necessary to the pages of a dictionary. The words are explained according to their connexion, and thereby shades of meaning elicited, which the dictionary would not contain. In many instances, combinations of words, or phrases, are defined by corresponding words or phrases. And sometimes, when the original term was easily understood, a more difficult synonymous phrase has been inserted, in order that the pupil might acquire a

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larger compass of language and phraseology, and, especially, that he might accurately understand the various idioms of his mother tongue.

'In some cases where a word has a variety of significations, perhaps of contrary import, the whole number has been attached. This, it is thought, will be a profitable exercise to the powers of comparison and judgment. It will cultivate the important habit of discrimination, while it brings into view, in some measure, the copiousness and extent of the English language.

'The system of questioning is intended to aid both the teacher and the scholar. The teacher is furnished with hints and queries, which he will pursue at pleasure. The scholar may find questions beyond his ability to answer, or some answers not perfectly satisfactory. These doubts may lead him to inquire of the teacher, and thereby a most important object will be gained. If he is excited to ask half a dozen questions, it will be of more permanent benefit to him, than as many pages of explanations from his instructer.

'The most difficult words in orthography are also transferred to the right hand page. Experience has convinced us, that spelling ought always to accompany reading. The scholar should learn to spell the word as he sees it, in the connexion in which he will ever afterwards see it. He should be taught to connect the form with the meaning, rather than to associate in his mind long columns of words, which have no connexion except in sound.'

The National Spelling Book and Pronouncing Tutor; containing Rudiments of Orthography and Pronunciation on an improved plan, by which the Sound of every Syllable is distinctly shown according to Walker's Principles of English Orthoepy; with progressive Reading Lessons, designed for the use of Schools in the United States. By B. D. Emerson, Principal of the Adams Grammar School. Boston. Richardson and Lord. 1828. 12mo. pp. 168.

This Spelling Book bears every mark of having been compiled with strict reference to the actual purposes of instruction. Great pains have evidently been taken to render it highly superior in character, and worthy of becoming a national work. Speaking comparatively of this book, the author seems to us to have been successful in all that he has undertaken. He has, by a strict adherence to Walker, thoroughly prepared the pupil for the use of the common dictionary; and by rigidly preserving the orthography of Johnson, has given a degree of classical character to elementary instruction in the English language.

The notation adopted is that of Walker, with one or two valuable additions, which render the system more complete. In another edition, however, we should be glad to see a *sixth* sound marked for the letter *O*—we mean that which occurs in *love*, *done*, *one*, *nothing*, &c.

The chief improvements claimed by Mr. Emerson, are the following: 1. "That this spelling-book precisely points out the pronunciation of each syllable in every word according to Walker's Principles of Orthoepy;—2. That it does this on a plan easily comprehended by the learner, and without encumbering each word with numerous characters or figures;—3. That it contains more matter, on the same number of pages, and in the same liberal type;—4. That the arrangement is better suited to the progressive improvement of learners, and peculiarly adapted to the exercises of monitorial teaching.'

Valuable, however, as this book is, we think that it would have been much improved by an arrangement similar to that of the Franklin Primer, in which the spelling lessons are extracted from the pieces for reading.

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AMERICAN

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EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES.

[The following article, our readers will perceive, is extracted from Johnston's work on public education in France, from which was transcribed the article in our last number, under the title of 'Origin of Colleges.' In tracing the history of the university of Paris, some of the causes of temporary decline in the prosperity of that institution, lead the author to mention the origin and growth of similar literary establishments in other parts of France, and in other countries of Europe. As these topics are in strict connexion with one great object of this Journal,—that of recording important facts relating to education,—we gladly embrace the opportunity of laying them before our readers.]

This great and important body, (the university of Paris,) the focus of science and learning, to which students crowded from every part of the civilized world, varied much in the degree of celebrity it enjoyed at different epochs of its history. During times when the kingdom and capital were torn by foreign wars and domestic broils, when the monarch, instead of being able to aid its progress, found occupation enough in defending his own rights against rebellious subjects, it is very easy to conceive that the university must have suffered. One great cause of the prosperity which it enjoyed, was the nature of its constitution, which was essentially secular; the regular orders which it was forced to admit into its body having always been received under considerable restrictions. The benefits accruing from this system are evident; the regular clergy, tied down and subservient to a particular body unconnected with

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the university, had two different interests to manage, which must have frequently clashed with each other; and the general interest of the university being the feeblest, could not fail to give way before the particular interest of the religious class to which they belonged. The secular clergy, on the contrary, free from every tie but those of religion and their country, had no object to divide or distract their attention from the interests or common good of the institution to which they were attached.* But though foreign and domestic wars might have influenced this prosperous state of the university, a great portion of its misfortunes arose from its own body; the licentious manners of the students, their constant brawls with the citizens, and their frequent dissensions among themselves, were so many causes of disturbance, which forced the government at times to adopt measures of coercion, to put down a spirit that was in danger of being carried so far as to injure the royal prerogative and the comfort of the citizens. The first quarrel, that nearly caused the destruction of the university and the total dispersion of those who attended it, was this:—Some students had been drinking in one of the suburbs of Paris; heated with wine, they quarrelled with their host; words were soon followed by blows, and for the time the students were repulsed. Returning to Paris, they strengthened their numbers, and having armed themselves, proceeded once more to the house of the wine-dealer, and slew or put to flight the inmates. Not content with this vengeance, they fell upon many of the unoffending neighbours, and maltreated them in such a manner that some were left for dead. The city authorities instantly repaired to the bishop of Paris, and to the pope's legate, who was then in the capital; these two churchmen hastened to the queen, represented to her the outrage, and entreated her not to let it go unpunished. Queen Blanche, then regent of the kingdom, gave instant orders to the city officers and a troop of mercenaries to seize without distinction all persons implicated in the disturbance. They hastened to put her command into execution, and encountered before the town a crowd of students engaged in games of amusement, and quite innocent of the outrage committed by their comrades. Without taking time to consider whether they were the guilty persons, the adherents of the queen attacked them, wounded many of their number, and killed two priests, the one a Fleming, the other a Norman. No sooner was the mischief known, than the doctors and masters of the universi-

* Crevier, I. 5.

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ty hastened to the queen and the pope's legate with demands of satisfaction. The queen refused to listen to them, and approved highly of what had been done. Upon receiving so ungracious an answer, the greater number both of masters and scholars proceeded to quit Paris, and spread themselves over other countries. The bishop and pope's legate issued bulls of excommunication against all who did not return to Paris; but Pope Gregory IX. annulled these bulls, and wrote himself to the king, queen, and many of the clergy, recommending an adjustment of differences, and a peaceable understanding between the government and the students. St Louis, grieved at the evil which the hasty conduct of the queen had caused, and anxious to restore to his capital the celebrity it had lost by the dispersion of the school, used all his endeavours to fulfil the pope's wishes, but it was some time before they were crowned with success; and those that did return, did it only upon the pledge of receiving full satisfaction. As the bishop of Paris and his chancellor were the most active agents in this affair, the pope satisfied the aggrieved parties by restricting, in many points, the jurisdiction of those dignitaries over the university, —a point that could not but be very agreeable to that body, as there always existed a great feeling of jealousy of the powers possessed by these churchmen, who were inclined to grasp at a universal and despotic management of its affairs.*

For the present, then, the total ruin of the Parisian school was prevented; still, however, it received a severe blow; for, from being the only seat of learning in France, it was now weakened by the formation of many other schools, which, in the course of a few years, rose to no inconsiderable degree of reputation. The year 1229 must thus be considered as an epoch of very great interest. The masters and students who had left Paris founded independent establishments in Angers, Poitiers, Orleans, Rheims, Toulouse, and many other towns, which, according to the patronage they received from the popes or French kings, obtained at a later or earlier period the titles and privileges of universities. At this time also, King Henry II. of England, anxious to benefit as far as he could his own subjects, held forth such inducements as caused many of the most celebrated teachers to repair to that country. By an express edict, he granted to all who should settle in an English university, privileges of the highest order; and there is no doubt, that the first dawn of the celebrity since enjoyed by the schools of Ox-

* Meiners, I. 218.

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ford and Cambridge had its rise in this partial degradation and dispersion of the university of Paris.

At the commencement of the thirteenth century, and before this unfortunate occurrence, the university was in the most flourishing condition; the number of students that crowded to it from all quarters of Europe was quite unexampled; to give any precise idea of what the number might have been at its greatest height is almost impossible, from the confusion and exaggeration prevailing in different works upon the subject; but that it was very considerable we may infer from the bustle in the city by the presence of the students, and the subsequent comparative state of desertion in which it is said to have remained when they quitted it, although we may not give credit to those authors who would make the calculation amount to ten, twenty, or thirty thousand.*

But after the dispute with Queen Blanche, the Parisian school no longer occupied the same rank. Other schools sprung up, encouraged by its desertion, and promoted by those with whom it was an object to prevent science from falling into oblivion. Many of these, indeed, existed but for a time, and when the teachers that had given them a temporary celebrity died, fell back into obscurity; but some of them did reach a pitch of renown, and had received privileges, that enabled them to become rivals, and no contemptible rivals, to the parent school. Thus, during the course of the thirteenth century, were founded the famous universities of Toulouse, Salamanca, Padua, Montpelier, Oxford, and Cambridge. Alarmed at the increase and progress of other schools, the university of Paris used its utmost influence with the kings of France and the pope, to put a check to their extension in France, under the plea of their interfering with its privileges; these requests, however, were not much attended to, and universities continued to be founded both in France and elsewhere, according to the partialities or caprices of temporal sovereigns, and of the head of the church. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the number of universities founded in Europe is quite incredible.

* The great uncertainty in which we must remain with regard to the real numbers of residents in the older universities may be proved from this circumstance, that, of the writers who have given an account of the university of Prague, some make the number of students, who attended it at the commencement of the fifteenth century, as high as 44,000, others 36,000, or 24,000, and others as low as 5000 and 4400. The last calculation certainly is the most likely to be near the truth.—Voigt. p. 82. Meiners, I. 226.

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The following list gives the date of foundation of some of the most celebrated :—

Pisa,	1338	St Andrews,	1411
Valladolid,	1346	Glasgow,	1454
Prague,	1348	Greifswald,	1456
Pavia,	1361	Freyberg,	1457
Vienna,	1365	Saragossa,	1474
Heidelberg,	1387	Tübingen,	1477
Erfurt,	1392	Aberdeen,	1477
Leipsic,	1409	Copenhagen,	1479
Valentia,	1410	Alcala,	1499

The very unsettled state of the kingdom of France favoured much the prosperity of these new establishments. A series of wars, foreign and domestic, kept up a constant state of effervescence in the minds of the Parisians; and the government, occupied in consolidating its own precarious power, and in annoying its enemies, was in no condition to give due attention to the progress of learning, or the literary instruction of its subjects: but, notwithstanding all these disadvantages, the university of Paris, by means principally of its numerous colleges, many of which were excellently conducted, though it lost a great proportion of its students, kept up a degree of respectability and celebrity that gave it a great and preponderating influence over the affairs of Europe.

POPULAR AND LIBERAL EDUCATION COMBINED.

[In the following sentiments on a liberal course of popular education, our readers, we think, will find much to approve as sound in theory and useful in application. We regret the impossibility of transcribing the whole pamphlet from which our present article is taken, and must be satisfied with recommending it to the attentive perusal of those of our readers into whose hands it may fall. It is entitled a View of the Livingston County High School on Temple Hill, Geneseo, (New York.) We may observe, in passing, that the institution from which this publication is issued, seems fully to realize the expectations of the enlightened individuals to whose exertions it owes its existence, and the hopes of those on whose efforts in instruction its character is dependent.

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The plan of this seminary, and the daily routine of its exercises, we shall present at our first opportunity. In the meantime, a brief notice of the school may be found by reverting to page 700 of volume II.]

We hear a great deal said about *adapting the course of study to the situation the pupil is designed to fill.* The idea which lies at the foundation of this doctrine is certainly correct. Whatever be the place an individual occupies in life, he should doubtless be prepared to discharge its duties by the culture of his early years. But when the theory is carried out into the practical details, like all other speculations, it leads to many erroneous conclusions. In its extension and application the process of nature becomes reversed. When you say your son is destined to any particular occupation or station in society, it may be inquired, By whom? Shall parents decree their offspring to this or that post in life? Can parents or any other human beings point out the bounding line, and say to genius and industry, 'thus far shalt thou come, and no farther?' Must the want of fortune of necessity preclude a lofty intellect from reaching the object of its aspirations? Does poverty, in our country, condemn its victim to inevitable obscurity? In answer to these questions we might triumphantly refer to those great names who have risen to honour, wealth, and rank, from the humblest origin; who have, in spite of poverty, in the face of opposition, struggled in their upward career, and attained a proud preeminence in their country, and in the world. Shall the mind, then, be made to bend itself to some fancied condition, which fate has decreed? Or shall not, rather, the powers of intellect be left to work out their own good fortune? This we think the best and happiest course; and it is the opposite to this which we complain of, as a perversion of the natural order of things. In America, we acknowledge no artificial distinctions of society. We pride ourselves upon that equality of rights and privileges that brings to a level the whole community, except so far as virtue and intelligence are concerned. We acknowledge no aristocracy but the natural aristocracy of worth and talents. Let worth and talents, then, be brought to light. Let them receive all the advantages that learning and culture can confer; and then let them be raised to the high places of society, whatever be the condition, as it respects the gifts of fortune, from which they are drawn. There should be no *castes* in the constitution of an American community. The child should not be

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compelled to follow his father's footsteps, unless his talents and disposition lead him into them. So far as we act in accordance with this principle, our practice will harmonize with the theory of our free institutions. From these remarks we would deduce an argument in favour of a course of general study, for *all* young men, whether rich or poor. We entertain no fears of unfitting a youth for his station by imparting to his mind the polish of literary culture to any degree. Knowledge never assumes the form of a destroying demon, even when clothed in the habiliments of poverty. No state or condition can be imagined wherein a man would not be all the better for a well trained intellect. Call out the mental energies, and develope them to full perfection, by *any* process of discipline; and you give the best preparation for active duty an intelligent being can possibly receive. We approve, therefore, of chaining the mind down to no narrow course; we wish it to have ample room for the unfolding of its mighty powers.

No man of reflection will ever doubt the utility of an acquaintance with *the exact and physical sciences.* To attain a knowledge of the former, requires the pure exercise of reason, the noblest power of man. Its conclusions are irresistibly certain; a quality which can be predicated of no other branches of human knowledge. Its reasonings lead to truths which are in their nature eternal; and the processes by which they are attained, are the most satisfactory efforts of the human intellect. Who shall then pretend to say that such pursuits should not be laid open to all? Who will believe that attempts at perfection in mere mechanical exertion, deserve a higher place in the education of a rational being? Who will assert that the interests of society will be more happily promoted by making the exertions of pure intellect an object of less importance than the mere efforts of ingenuity? To write an elegant and rapid hand is certainly a desirable and useful accomplishment. But who will compare its value to the noble gift of sound and forcible reasoning? The physical sciences have received important improvements by the application of mathematical aids. Yet, in themselves considered, how interesting are the objects they present to our minds! To trace by the process of induction the laws that govern the universe, to arrive by reasoning from the simplest facts at the most important and comprehensive conclusions, to discover the qualities of matter by a keen analysis, to detect the chain of causes and effect, by observing combinations closely and accurately, open to the powers of the intellect, a

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field as extensive, as brilliant, as full of glory, as can well be imagined. Such studies, then, in a liberal and philosophical education, will receive no little attention. It matters not whether the pupil be rich or poor, of high or low degree, he has an unanswerable claim to be initiated into the wonders of the universe.

The study of the *modern languages*, is of daily increasing importance. Our growing intercourse with foreign nations makes it a desirable object to know their languages. The French, a language celebrated for its adaptation to the purposes of social life, and more generally understood than any other, ought to be familiar to every well informed merchant. It is not asserted that a merchant cannot justly and skilfully discharge the duties that devolve upon him, without it. This would be to impeach the mercantile character of many of our most valuable men. But it *is* asserted that the convenience of such a knowledge as would ensure an easy comprehension of common writers, and the ordinary language of business correspondence, compared with the time and trouble necessary to its attainment, has the weight of a powerful argument in its favour. Our republican neighbours in the south have already drawn the attention of citizens of the United States to the study of Spanish. The mere facility of commercial intercourse is enough to convince us that a knowledge of this language would be highly useful to every man of enterprise. The Italian possesses such boundless treasures of literature, that we cannot help advocating the study of this tongue, even for men who are destined to active life. In a view of the objects of living that comprehends pecuniary gain and physical comfort alone, the arguments that may be brought forward in favour of this elegant pursuit, we are aware, will find no place. But we know from the examples of great and illustrious men, that the most absorbing avocations of business are not incompatible with an extensive cultivation of elegant literature. It is the doctrine of a sound philosophy that the length of life is not to be estimated by the number of days and months and years that have expired, but by the succession of thoughts that have occupied the mind. One man, therefore, may live more in ten years, than another in three score and ten. And do not the most crowded employments leave some leisure hours, in which a man may free himself from the cares and fatigues of business, and yield his mind to the pursuits of agreeable letters? We would not look upon wealth as the sole or most important means of securing happiness; for this conviction

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would be in the face of daily testimony. In estimating, therefore, the utility, the *plain, practical utility* of a branch of study, we must not guide ourselves by a calculation of percentage. Every source of pure and rational pleasure deserves the consideration of an intelligent being. Besides the importance of languages in a business view of the subject, these reflections offer themselves in support of the propriety of cultivating any language adorned with an interesting and valuable literature, as a source of improvement and innocent pleasure.

Classical learning, as a knowledge of Grecian and Roman literature has been called, by way of distinction, has of late years occupied the attention in no small degree, of writers and thinkers on the subject of education. We regret the spirit with which this branch of knowledge has been assailed. We cannot impugn the motives which have led to the late attacks on classical studies; for on a subject of literary and philosophical discussion, the supposition that improper motives exist, involves a practical absurdity. But we fear, lest this 'spirit of reform' in its zeal to destroy the tares, will root up the wheat also. The question has been entered into with all the warmth of political asperity. While the one party has greatly exaggerated the value of ancient literature, the other has denounced it in terms which calm truth and rational philosophy can never sanction. There can be no doubt that the high rank assigned to the ancient masters in the earliest universities of Europe, has led to an unreasonable estimation of their merits throughout the literary world. We would not force the study of the Greek and Latin upon all, for compulsion never made a fine classical scholar. But we can have no sympathy with those literary radicals, who would banish from our halls of learning and consign to everlasting oblivion, the splendid monuments of Grecian and Roman genius. And though it is in our opinion, very far from being true that ancient literature is superior to that of modern ages; though the inconceivable advances which the human mind has made in every species of knowledge since the brightest days of the ancient world, have given to its efforts and labours an energy and diffusive utility that then were never dreamed of; yet would we go to the literary stores of Greece and Rome to learn the character and feelings of a remote age; to trace the effects of different ethics and different religions on the human mind; to watch the progress of intellect, from the first dawning of civilization, to the highest splendor which the unaided powers of man can attain; and finally, to learn the

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instructive lesson, that the brightest intellect, unaided by revelation, must grope in comparative darkness. On such grounds we rest the defence of classical learning. In this point of view, we consider it stamped with an interest which time can never obliterate.

The improvement of life means much more than is generally conveyed to the mind by such an expression. It means the use which an honest man devotes it to, of accomplishing some great and good purpose. When the feelings of the heart and the energies of the intellect are warmly engaged in forwarding the best interests of humanity, not a moment passes without leaving its memorial behind: not a moment is surrendered to that foe of human happiness, the ennui of indolence. Each hour is sacredly employed in deeds of goodness, or the improvement of the mind. The language of reason, then, reads to us a solemn lesson on the importance of training the youthful mind to such invaluable habits. Let the most glowing pages of learning be thrown open for the study of the young; let the beauties of literature be spread before their eager imagination, and free access given to its most exquisite enjoyments; let their best feelings be enlisted in the pursuit of moral and intellectual culture; point out the superiority of happiness consisting in virtue and learning, to the degrading allurements of vice; awaken and stimulate the natural spirit of improvement, and describe the most abundant sources of pure, refined, and exalted pleasure; let habits of study be formed that shall last through life; let a fondness for books be acquired, that shall make them pleasant companions in solitude, a solace in adversity, and an ornament in prosperity; and then a great work will be accomplished towards the elevation of the public mind, the improvement of moral feeling, and the purification of individual and national character.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTION IN GEOGRAPHY AND ASTRONOMY.

Some account of the Elementary Observatory erected at the Cincinnati Female Academy.

[For the following interesting and highly valuable article we are indebted to Mr Locke, of the institution mentioned above.

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The apparatus here described differs essentially from the contrivances usually employed to illustrate the science of astronomy; many of which, though pretending to display the whole visible hemisphere, are so diminutive that they have often very little effect but to render narrow and mechanical the early conceptions of the mind regarding this noblest of studies. Mr Locke, does not profess to fetch the whole expanse of heaven into the compass of a few inches, or make a parade of his mechanism as the only sure and easy way to a complete knowledge of astronomy. His ingenious but modest invention is meant only to give definite ideas of elementary terms and simple phenomena. It occupies the true ground of a practical expedient in teaching, and while it renders its subject more familiar to the mind of the pupil, leaves free scope for his future advancement.]

Geography is deservedly made an object of considerable attention in many of our common schools, and in all academies of a higher order. The present state of the science renders it necessary that every student should have some previous knowledge of *astronomy*, to comprehend its principles. The problems of day and night, heat and cold, months, years, seasons, climates, &c. can never be solved in the pupil's mind, without that knowledge which is afforded by astronomy. Hence a concise system of astronomy is often given as an introduction to a geographical treatise; and hence teachers very judiciously attempt to impart to their pupils some idea of the stars and planets, previous to a course of study in geography. But, for want of proper means, they often fail to impress the mind with a real knowledge of the subject. The first step should, in my opinion, be to give an idea of the simple phenomena of the heavens, without any theory of the real causes of those phenomena. For this purpose, the pupil should be induced to make observations and actually to *see* that the stars move, that they come to any particular point in the heavens, about four minutes earlier every successive night, that the sun does not cross the meridian in the same place every day, but is getting higher and higher, or lower and lower, &c. &c. After the learner has formed clear and strong conceptions of such simple phenomena generally, he should be taught the real motions which produce them. This, we see, has been the natural progress of the science of astronomy. The shepherd astronomers of the east, as they encamped in the open air, under a sky always clear, could not but see and

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admire the 'rolling sphere.' They became familiar with the minutiæ of the apparent or angular motions. As no calendar or predicted calculations of time were used, the larger periods were measured by astronomical movements, ascertained by immediate observation. The beginning of a new month was known by the first appearance of the new moon. The time of the feast of the new moon, among the Jews, was ascertained by persons placed on the hills of Palestine about Jerusalem, who watched the disappearance of the old moon and the appearance of the new, and made report to the high priest. Thus, the common business and religious rites of the ancients compelled them to make constant and accurate observations. The moderns have from these observations deduced the real motions which cause all the wonderful appearances of the heavens, and are enabled to predict their times and periods.

The simple phenomena or apparent motions of the heavenly bodies, in which the earth or rather the eye of the observer is taken as the relative centre, is the astronomy of our senses.

The impression that the sun *rises* and *sets* strikes the senses and imagination of every person, how well soever he may be acquainted with the true solar system. It was the astronomy of the ancients, and is the astronomy of the Bible. It is still, and always will be the astronomy of the unlearned, as well as of the navigator and geographer. But to come more immediately to our subject,—I have always instructed my geographical classes more or less in astronomy, and have used as auxiliary instruments a pair of globes and an inclinable orrery.* But after enabling my pupils to perform the common problems on the globes and orrery, I have often had the mortification to find them at a loss to apply their knowledge to the heavenly bodies. I was made to perceive that a knowledge of the globes and orrery was one thing, and a real knowledge of astronomy was another. To obviate this difficulty by bringing my pupils to a study of the 'original,' I constructed what I call an Elementary Observatory, which is described as follows.

* This orrery was invented by myself, and made by A. Willard, Boston, and can be inclined and adjusted to any latitude so as to have all the planets of the instrument, at any hour of the day and any season of the year, correspond to the planets in nature which they represent. Thus, at noon the body representing the sun in the orrery will be seen south of that representing the earth, and at its true altitude above the horizon. It can be so adjusted as to show either the real or apparent motions, and how the former causes the latter.

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Description.—This instrument is in short the superior half of a large armillary sphere, placed stationary about four and a half feet above a circular platform, with all of its circles placed so as to correspond to the circles of the heavens which they represent. It must be so large that the observers can be accommodated inside of it; say from five to twenty feet diameter. The observer sits with his eye at the centre of the sphere, where he sees the planetary bodies passing in their ordinary course, over the various circles, all of which are graduated on the inside for the purpose. The sight-hole at the centre is in a piece which turns on a universal joint in such a manner as to present to any point of the hemisphere.

My own observatory is twenty feet in diameter, and placed on the top of my academy building, like a cupola. But any open situation as a garden would be suitable. I am inclined to recommend a diameter of about four or five feet instead of twenty, because the observer can reach the graduated circles of one of the former size, and point out the degree of any phenomenon while his eye remained at the centre. It is also more easily constructed.

Construction.—Build a circular platform as large as the intended horizontal circle, and erect about eight posts at the circumference, four or five feet high. On the tops of these posts place the horizontal circle which, as well as the other principal circles, should be made of felloes or arcs of wood, about thirty degrees each, screwed together double, so as to 'break joints.' Each single arc should be about three inches deep and three fourths of an inch thick, so as to make the circle three inches deep and one and a half thick. The *horizon* being graduated and levelled, erect a semicircle upon it vertically, as nearly in the plane of the meridian as possible, and of course standing on the north and south points of the horizon; this will represent the *twelve o'clock meridian.* Place a second semicircle with its ends on the east and west points of the horizon, and incline it so much from the zenith, south, as the latitude of the place, where let it interlock with the *meridian semicircle.* This will be in the plane of the *equator.* Let a third semicircle pass from east to west interlocking with the *meridian* at the pole or so many degrees above the horizon as the latitude of the place; this will represent the *six o'clock meridian.* Half way from east to the *twelve o'clock meridian* let another circular arc interlock with the equator; this will represent the *nine o'clock meridian.* Half way between the twelve o'clock meridian and the west

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point of the horizon, let another circular arc interlock with the equator; this will represent the *three o'clock meridian*. To these may be applied the smaller circles, viz. the *tropics* and the *polar circle*, which may be made lighter. The intermediate meridians may be made of thin strips bent over the other circles, which serve as a frame to support them. Observe to construct the whole so that the face-side of every circle shall be in the true place of that circle in the sphere. This face-side should be the eastern side of each meridian, and the upper sides of the equator and horizon. After the whole is erected, it should be adjusted by the passage of the polar star over the six o'clock meridian, which should be at one and three fifths degrees from the pole on each side. If it be correctly adjusted to the latitude, the same star will cross the twelve o'clock meridian at the same distance above and below the pole. The machinery at the centre which supports the sight-hole requires particular description. It consists of an iron axis about one foot long and three fourths of an inch diameter, turned in a lathe cylindrically at each end to run in boxes, an oval fork screwed to the end of it, and a cross piece between the ends of the fork. The oval fork is about eight by ten inches (large enough to put one's head through,) made of flat iron, bent like the capital letter U. At the middle of the bend it is fastened to the iron axes, and the upper ends are drawn within three inches of each other. Between these ends is the cross piece, having the sight-hole in the middle, and turning on pivots, which pass through the ends of the forks. This axis is supported on frame work in such a manner as to be in the axis of the sphere south of, or below the centre, with the sight-hole in the cross piece precisely at the centre, and adjusted in such a manner that the sight-hole will not be moved from its point by turning either the axis or the cross piece. It will be seen that, by these two motions, the sight-hole can be presented to any point. The post supporting this short axis should stand about ten inches south of the centre of the platform, leaving the centre clear for zenith observations. A *terrestrial globe* of nine inches, should be fitted to an axis precisely like that to which the fork is fastened. And when used should be substituted in the same place. This globe, by means of its illuminated and shaded side, when the sun is shining will exhibit all of the phenomena of the seasons, and of day and night. Some knowledge of spherics is necessary in the construction of such an observatory; for the circles of common

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globes are too imperfect to be taken as models. The lengths of the various parts must therefore be obtained by calculation.

Uses.—It is not expected that a wooden observatory can be so constructed as to answer the higher and more accurate purposes of astronomy. But as it can be easily made to come within the one eighth of a degree of accuracy, it will answer perfectly to demonstrate the *elements of astronomy* to a beginner; hence we have called it the '*Elementary* Observatory.' To a beginner it has this advantage over more accurate instruments, that it is the most simple contrivance possible.

It is evident that when the eye of an observer is at the centre of this sphere he can, by means of the graduated circles, measure all of the angular distances and motions of the heavenly bodies. The sun will be seen to come to the face-side of each meridian every hour; the moon will occupy more than an hour in passing through the same space. The stars of Orion's belt will be seen to pass all round behind the equator, and the 'seven stars,' behind the tropic of cancer. The declination of the sun or any other body will be seen every time it crosses a meridian. The polar star will be seen to describe a circle three and one fifth degrees diameter about the pole as a centre, &c. &c.

These are some of the observations which a tyro is enabled by the assistance of a good watch or clock to make; but as the heavens, by rolling over this sphere, perform almost every problem of celestial astronomy, I shall not attempt to particularize.

The Elementary Observatory is also of important use in teaching spherics. All of the analogies of the sines, cosines, tangents, &c. which ordinarily are imagined inside of a common globe, may here be exhibited in fact by means of lines of twine stretched inside of the sphere in their proper situations.

I have communicated this account with the hope that so simple a contrivance might be erected at some of the permanent schools. Nor would it be a useless appendage to our colleges. A few ingenious young men might erect one themselves at any academy or school. To calculate its various parts would afford them a good exercise in spherics.

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STATE OF POPULAR INSTRUCTION.

Primary Schools.

[The splendid provision for scientific instruction at the Royal College of France, mentioned in a note on page 198 of our last number, forms a striking contrast to the destitute condition of some places, in regard to primary and common schools, as indicated in the following circular. For several reasons we have preferred translating this paper at length, with the exception of a few unimportant restrictions relative to contributions towards the fund required for the school. An abstract would, we thought, be less satisfactory, whether as regards an accurate representation of the actual state of common education in France, or the extensive and philanthropic efforts of the Society for Elementary Instruction, which is labouring with great zeal and perseverance to make up for that great national want, the absence of a regular public provision for the general dissemination of instruction. The document here presented is certainly a cheering evidence that the great cause of popular improvement is not altogether neglected in France; but it furnishes at the same time a melancholy proof, that the great privilege of even an ordinary education is yet inaccessible to large portions of society, in countries justly celebrated for high advancement in science and literature, and for munificent establishments of learning.

The following article is translated from the September number of the French Journal of Education, the latest received, and for the transmission of which, together with the other numbers of the year, we are under obligations to the kindness of Professor Goodrich of Yale College.]

Several benevolent persons have formed a project for re-establishing a large school for mutual instruction in the city of Sancerre. In pursuance of this design, they have published the following prospectus. We republish it here, because it appears to us of a nature to stimulate the zeal of the friends of popular instruction in other places.

A few years ago, the city of Sancerre possessed a primary school regulated upon the system of mutual instruction. This interesting establishment, whose good effects must have been felt, failed from causes analogous to those which, to the great detriment of the poorer classes, brought destruction upon a

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multitude of schools of the same kind.* Some benevolent persons both of the city and the environs, whose organs we here venture to be, have conceived a project of reviving this school, upon wider and more secure foundations.

How is it possible we should not be struck with the destitute condition of the city of Sancerre, owing to the almost absolute want of instruction which prevails? Its population and that of the whole jurisdiction, deprived of the advantages procured by commerce and industry, are mostly composed of vinedressers, whom toilsome labour hardly rescues from misery. Their children, and even those of many inhabitants in easier circumstances, remain plunged in a deplorable state of ignorance, which stifles every germ of prosperity and moral amelioration. While in some parts of Germany and Switzerland the smallest villages have a good school, there are in the centre of France cities and places of importance utterly destitute of them.

Such a state of things would strongly accuse the inefficiency of all those whom their rank enables to contribute to the public good, if the laudable intentions by which most of them are animated, were not manifested in more than one circumstance. It is for want of union that good does not operate in a country which contains all its elements. The establishment of a good primary school in Sancerre, would be of high importance: it would serve for a model and seminary to all those which the zeal of communities and of private individuals, hereafter awakened upon this great object of public utility, would not fail to produce in the neighbourhood. What may not be done by the union of all good people, directed towards so generous an end! We have a noble example in the services rendered for twelve years back, by the society formed at Paris for the improvement of elementary instruction; that society, which has been honoured by having for its President the noble Duke De La Rochefoucauld. It has founded numerous schools, in which thousands of children receive gratuitous instruction; and it has preserved the precious deposit of that method of mutual instruction, whose superiority over every other is now undoubted. The spirit of party has only too often, on both sides, injured so noble a cause;* but we

* The allusion here made is to the circumstance that the society meets with its most effective supporters among the Protestants, and the liberal party in political affairs, while its more active opponents have been of what are sometimes called *ultra* principles, both in respect of religion and politics. The enemies of the society gained, at one time, an extensive triumph, and succeeded in embarrassing or preventing its operations, especially in the less considerable towns, as hinted at in the commencing paragraph of the circular. Happily the

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here address ourselves to all men worthy of confidence, though of various opinions—to all friends of their country. Who has not a personal interest in seeing formed around him good workmen, intelligent husbandmen, and especially good citizens and honest people? Instruction alone, aided by religious sentiments, is capable of producing these beneficent results.

Firmly convinced that of all ways of being useful to our country, the most efficacious, the most lasting, the only one perhaps which is always practicable, is to diffuse instruction among the people. We confidently appeal, gentlemen, to your patriotism, to induce you to join the society which is going to be formed for the foundation of a large primary school in Sancerre. The instruction will comprise reading, writing, arithmetic, and practical geometry, or linear drawing. A hundred and fifty subscriptions, each of the moderate sum of twenty francs a year, are necessary for the salary of the master, the preservation of the site, of which we have reason to hope the city will dispose in our favour, and the expense of materials and rewards. As to the expenses of the first establishment, the making of benches and circles, the purchasing of slates, tables, &c., they will be provided from the private donations of some of the subscribers.

The project which occupies our attention, has already attracted that of the local authorities, which are always disposed to favour the public good, and whose benevolent spirit is so honourably known. It has also obtained the suffrage of several persons influential through the just esteem in which they are held. Every thing seems then to predict its complete success: it is secured if the principal proprietors, the enlightened men who hold dear the honour and prosperity of their country, lend us their support. The electors especially ought to set the example. Invested by the charter with the noble privilege of choosing the organs of public opinion, legal representatives of the intelligence of the country, it principally belongs to them to justify their commission by a greater devotion to the public affairs, a more lively interest in the wants of their fellow citizens.

The primary school with which it is contemplated to endow the city of Sancerre, will not be one of those ephemeral establishments produced in a moment of enthusiasm, and which the least obstacle, the least coldness on the part of the subscribers,

jealousies of party spirit are fast subsiding; and the efforts of patriotism and philanthropy are better understood on both sides, and operate with less hindrance from difference of opinion on subjects not immediately connected with education. Ed.

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soon crushes. Let us create for it permanent resources; let us make for it,—from the example of the hospitals, and the schools of Brethren of the Christian Doctrine, whose praiseworthy devotion and services none appreciate better than ourselves,—a true foundation. To obtain this stability so indispensable, we propose that the subscriptions should be made for a certain number of years, five for instance. At the end of this term, the useful results of a good school begin to be generally felt; the good produced is evident to the most prejudiced; and the establishment is sheltered from all danger. What proprietor in easy circumstances would fear to engage for five years in so good a work? Does he not engage for the same length of time in other associations, such as securities against fire, hail, &c. If to banish these scourges he imposes upon himself a slight sacrifice, will he not make one to destroy the ignorance which is, with regard to social order, the most fatal of all scourges? The method of mutual instruction is so economical, that, from calculations based upon the experience of the schools of Paris, twenty francs are sufficient to give instruction to three poor children for a year. Who will not be eager to do so much good at so little expense?

The subscription is opened, to date from this day. The annual contribution of twenty francs is the minimum of those which will constitute members of the association; but we are certain that a large number of persons intend to proportion their donations to the fortune they enjoy.

As every association of more than twenty persons ought, according to law, to be specially authorized by the government, we propose, in order to avoid every objection, instead of general meetings, a council of administration, which shall by right consist of twenty of the largest subscribers, commencing on the first of January of each year. In case of competition between two or more subscribers, the senior contributors shall have the vote. As soon as we shall have united a hundred, the council of administration will, first, offer a master to be approved by the civil and religious authorities, and, secondly, all means of procedure for immediately opening the school. Every year, the council shall account to the subscribers for the employment of the funds, by a printed circular.

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SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS ON FEMALE EDUCATION.

Accomplishments.

[The following judicious observations are extracted from Domestic Education, by a Mother,—a work mentioned at page 564 of volume II. The author's remarks apply more directly to society and education in England; but, in the course of the work, many valuable hints are occasionally dropped, which admit of universal application to the instruction of the female sex.]

Dancing. It is difficult for rational observers to consider dancing in any other light than as an amusement; yet great pains seem to be taken to render it a study demanding much close and serious attention. Healthy children, accustomed to enjoy the free use of their limbs in the open air, will want little tuition to become good dancers—will not need collars, stocks, remonstrances, and reproofs, to teach them to hold up their heads and turn out their toes. By running, jumping, skipping in gardens and fields, and moving their feet and their heads without restraint, and looking freely about them up to trees and stars, and around to flowers and play-fellows, they will too often stretch the sinews of their legs, and bend the joints of their ancles, and draw up their necks and heads, to run the risk of moving heavily and clumsily, and of carrying themselves ungracefully.

As, however, in civilized countries, certain movements constitute the grace and elegance of dancing, children had better be early taught the most common steps in vogue. A twelve-month of tuition, say from seven to eight, will suffice to give the prompt little pupils a good notion of time and regulated motion. After that, they may go on dancing to their mother's pianoforte, whenever she pleases to indulge them with a country dance or Scotch reel, and be as merry and as graceful as they please. At twelve or fourteen years of age, another year or two of tuition may fit them to join in the dances then in vogue. As the fashion is continually changing, this instruction to the girl just budding into the young woman may be useful and agreeable.

But if dancing has one preeminent charm, it is the charm of artlessness. Can this charm exist, if the dancer's thoughts are absorbed in the desire of self exhibition? No; then let not self

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exhibition for one instant creep into the mind of the young dancer. By conversation, by example, by every possible medium, inculcate that we dance to amuse ourselves, not to exhibit ourselves. Do not even let us praise a child, without remembering this aim. Let us not say, 'You dance prettily;' let us say, 'You dance very merrily.' Let not the fond mother exclaim, 'Come, let *me see* you dance;' but, 'Come, will *you have* a dance?'

It is this principle that reconciles us to the disuse of that most elegant movement, the slow minuet; for can there be a more positive self exhibition than that of standing up to dance a minuet? If dancing is a mirthful recreation, how can it be enjoyed with the gravity of a funeral march, and to the time of a funeral dirge? Or how can a solitary pair expect to taste it in all its hilarity? Surely only in festive bands can it be thoroughly relished; for then sociability gives zest to the amusement, the smile of glee flies contagious through the group, an awkward movement adds but to the general gaiety, and the act itself is found a sufficient gratification without the aid of applause from flattering spectators.

Music. The acquirement of this art, or rather the attempt to acquire it, by all classes of young women, is a folly that has in some degree been laughed out of fashion. The daughters of shopkeepers, and farmers, and poor gentry, are no longer (without exception) taught to play on the pianoforte; a more rational system of education is beginning to pervade all ranks of society, and mothers are now very generally heard to assert their pretensions to common sense, by declaring their girls shall only learn what is adapted to their stations and abilities. One mischievous sentiment yet remains to be expunged, the common declaration that children should only learn what their genius directly and peculiarly marks out, as a natural impulse. 'I do not intend that my daughters should be taught music and drawing, unless they show a decided genius for it,' is an assertion that is perpetually heard. Many writers of acknowledged ability have successfully proved, that such peculiarity of talent is rarely, if ever, possessed; and how few of those volubly talking of genius, could give any description of their conception of it, if indeed they possess any conception of it; were parents primarily to reflect what are the rational motives which urge their rendering their children accomplished, they would not need to harass themselves with any metaphysical disquisitions

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on the subject; with or without a genius, their children could be made to acquire whatever they would desire.

It ought indeed to be ever present to the minds of parents and instructers, that the right aim of education is to produce happy and useful members of society; whatever tends to promote that end is valuable, all else is worthless.

The wealthy classes of society have abundance of leisure; if that leisure is without occupation, much misery, it may be much error, selfish and social, is propagated and diffused. To avoid as much as possible this misery and this error, employment ought to be provided for the anticipated leisure, and as the wealthy can choose their occupation, not only various but agreeable employments ought to be placed within their reach; hence, the study of the languages, the arts of music and drawing, seem almost necessary to the felicity of the rich, since, without their aid, the worst enemy of man, indolence, would curse them with its torpor, or with the vacant leisure, which, in active minds, gives birth to foolish and vicious thoughts.

Men of all classes have duties and pleasures, independent of the elegant accomplishments, but as women should look for their joys chiefly at home, they must have resources for domestic and lonely enjoyment. Without therefore talking of genius or taste, mothers must simply consider what chance of future leisure they may anticipate for their daughters; as wives or single women, the probability of living on a small income will suggest the full occupation of life, by the right discharge of every domestic duty; for those, therefore, who have small fortunes, or are likely to marry in an humble walk of life, it is worse than useless, it is injurious, to waste time on the acquirements of drawing and music. The hours so devoted would be much more profitably spent in the attainment of the useful branches of education—writing, arithmetic, and needlework.

Let not mothers harass themselves with the objection that their daughters may marry, or become wealthy, beyond sober calculation. Such chances are rare, and, when occurring, a knowledge of the useful arts will go much towards finding agreeable and rational occupation. How many young women, who are considered adepts in music and painting, from preference occupy their leisure with their needles. This should not surprise us, when we reflect on the endless variety of elegant and useful labours the needle can supply.

Where an inherited handsome independence is possessed, it is wise assuredly to have girls taught accomplishments, that, to

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married or single women, may prove graceful and appropriate; to mothers, as giving the power of instructing, or better superintending the instruction of their children—to single women, as bestowing the means of pleasingly occupying leisure. It cannot be too often repeated, that the more resources a woman has for domestic and lonely employment, the more she will love her home, the less she will be disposed to enter into habits of dissipation and extravagance.

It seems, then, that it is easy to determine whether or not our daughters ought to learn music. The next point to be determined is, how shall it be best attained? For, if we desire it to be practised, we must take care that it is acquired to some degree of excellence. Few people choose to do often what they cannot do well.

Now it seems that music may be deemed a mechanical art, an art that cannot be attained to any perfection without long and incessant practice. Can this length of practice be crowded into a few devoted years? We think not, for it is a very progressive art, and early application best fits the hand for its most delicate exhibition. The pliant fingers of childhood much more easily adapt themselves to the movement and ever changing position, than the less flexible joints of the adult. Hence, therefore, if this charming art is to be taught, the younger the pupil is initiated into its rudiments the better. Some instructers assert that nature marks the period when the child may be placed before the pianoforte; namely, when its little hand can extend to an octave. But is this a judicious suggestion? How different is the size of the hand in different children of the same age; one can stretch over eight keys at the age of seven, whereas another cannot at nine. The mental expansion, the power of understanding instruction, seems a better criterion; for what is understood by the head, if not instantly performed by the hand, will urge to more earnest efforts of attention and application. The head may improve the hand; the hand will not so certainly improve the head.

If the age of seven is recommended as a good period for commencing lessons in music, let not the skilful arithmetician hastily begin to calculate the probable number of hours to be devoted to this pursuit, and sigh at the immense sum total. Upon the broad principle, that *the attention of pupils ought never to be wearied*, be the art or science they study what it may, a very short lesson in music is recommended; but it must be a

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daily lesson.* For the first six months, one quarter of an hour; for the second six months, half an hour; after the first year, two hours daily: this arrangement has been tried, and has succeeded beyond the hopes of the projector.

For the first year it is not advisable for the young pupil to practise alone, since many bad habits in the manner of sitting, moving the hands, &c., may be thereby acquired, as also playing in false time; but, after the first year, the labours of the instructer may be greatly diminished, by the pupil practising half of the hour alone, and the other half with the preceptor.

One of the present modish plans of teaching music, is for the pupil to be engaged, for one year, in solely learning to *read music*; where this plan is adopted, the tuition of the art may very well commence at six years old; experience can alone determine how far this is the better plan; it is not easy to comprehend its advantages. For of what avail is the theory of music, without the power of putting that theory in practice; instrumental music is not an abstract art, it is a positive mechanical operation; let a child read music ever so well, she knows little of it, unless she can play the notes as readily as she can read them; after she has learnt to read, she must learn to play; after she has toiled to understand the marks on the book, she must toil to understand how those marks relate to the ivory keys of her pianoforte; she first attains the theory, and has afterwards to reduce it to practice; on this plan she serves two apprenticeships to the art. Were it not better to make one initiation suffice? to let reading the notes and teaching the keys be taught together? Would not time and labour be thereby saved? Would not a dry and wearying study, be converted into a cheerful, pleasing amusement? These are questions to be answered by experience. If it be proved that the twelvemonth's initiatory reading, *ensures* a more excellent exhibition of this accomplishment, it is a course most worthy to be pursued.

It were well, as a first music lesson, to open the pianoforte, and give the pupil some idea of its internal mechanism; some conception may, at the same time, be instilled of the manner in which sound is propagated and hushed, rendering loud and soft, &c. In teaching any art or science, too much pains cannot be taken to give its fundamental rules and principles;

* Sundays of course excepted; for, in spite of the high authority of 'Practical Education,' we never desire to see Sunday loaded with workingday duties. We would ever wish to see it a *holy* day, and a holiday.

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to be well grounded is much more essential than is generally supposed; for after excellence is thereby more likely to ensue, and even moderate proficiency thereby rendered more valuable.

There is a golden rule in Practical Education, that every mother should study,—'whatever young women learn, let them be taught accurately.' 'The knowledge of the *general principles* of any science is very different from *superficial knowledge* of the science; perhaps, from not attending to this distinction, or from not understanding it, many have failed in female education.'—*Chapter on Female Accomplishments.*

There are several excellent introductory works to aid a mother in teaching the elements of music;—the 'Guida Musica' of Hook, though old fashioned, has been found very efficient.

It has proved very beneficial to write down, on small pieces of paper, the different portions of the gamut, one portion to be learnt at a time; thus, the names of the five treble lines may form one lesson; the four treble spaces another; then the five bass lines; and next, the four bass spaces; and so on, till all the names of the notes are learnt to be read in the books, and their places on the instrument pointed out; as thus, 'Treble Cliff:'—

First line, E.
Second line, G.
Third line, B.
Fourth line, D.
Fifth line, F.

It is a common complaint that pupils are disposed to look *down* on their fingers, and are with difficulty brought to look *up* on their books. How can it be otherwise? By repeatedly sounding the different keys, their relative places on the instrument can only be known; some time must be required to gain this knowledge; until it is gained, how can a child ascertain whereabouts she is to place her finger to strike a certain note? Let not, then, instructers harass themselves and their pupils with premature attempts to do, what time and practice can alone enable them to do; much wrangling and vexation may be thus avoided. At the end of a twelvemonth,* (but seldom before,) children begin to know the places of the keys, and can look at their books whilst they play.

* It is well known, that even adults, and persons advanced in life, require some months' tuition, ere they can read music as they play it.

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The study of music may be divided into four parts, or progressive steps :—

First, to know the notes in the book and on the instrument.

Second, to sound every note in the piece.

Third, to play in time.

Fourth, to play with execution and taste.

Each of these steps must be attained in the order they are noted, and each well attained before the following one is attempted. Most especially should children be informed, that every note of the piece they are practising, must be sounded, or no degree of excellence can be attained? Is this observation sufficiently inculcated?

It is generally recommended to practise the third and fourth fingers ; those fingers, being little used in other mechanical operations, are usually weak and untractable. In playing, they are often called into action, and therefore must be strengthened by use for the probable demand.

Care should be taken that the pupil sits in a good posture at the pianoforte, and this not upon the principle of avoiding ungenteel and unfashionable attitudes, but upon the more rational principle of avoiding a much more important evil, the risk of growing crooked. It is the incurring of this deplorable calamity that precludes very young girls learning to play on the harp ; the position demanded for the touching of that instrument usually producing some degree of deformity in growing children. It ought, therefore, never to be attempted until girls have ceased to grow.

Above every other consideration, the greatest pains should be taken to inspire a *right* motive for the acquirement of music as an accomplishment—proper feelings to attend its exhibition. By most human beings it is considered as the most delightful art ; for its own charms let it be cultivated, for its power of pleasing let it be displayed. Impress strongly on the young mind that it is for the pleasure her performance *bestows*, not for the applause she receives, that she ought to be anxious ;—that it is not how well she plays, but how much she gratifies, that is of consequence. It has been elsewhere said that 'the performer who can be thinking of the applause of listeners, instead of the harmony of her performance, may fancy herself possessed of science and of taste, but can have little of the true musical tact.'

Some parents object to boys learning music, as a knowledge of this art may draw the attention from more useful studies, and lead the pupil into pernicious society. Music has, howev-

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er, been found to be an amusement that has presented agreeable home resources for young men, and has assisted to withdraw them from love of public gaieties aad indiscriminate society. Circumstances must, therefore, determine when music is a desirable attainment for youths.

Let it be carefully instilled into pupils of either sex, that a moderate knowledge of music, with accuracy and taste, produces more gratification to the listener, as well as to the performer, than the greatest brilliancy of touch and rapidity of execution without taste and accuracy. A girl of very moderate musical talent may play and sing to please relatives and friends, the only persons she ought to desire for auditors.

REVIEW.

Report of a Sub-Committee of the School Committee, recommending various Improvements in the System of Instruction in the Grammar and Writing Schools of this City. Boston. Nathan Hale. 1828. 8vo. pp. 37.

Review of the Mayor's Report, on the subject of Schools, so far as it relates to the High School for Girls. By E. Bailey, *late Master of that School.* Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 8vo. pp. 54.

Our object in mentioning these publications, is to take a convenient opportunity of saying a few words on the merits of the system of mutual instruction. The readers of the Journal do not need to be reminded that, from the commencement of the work, much space in our pages has been occupied with accounts of this system, and with intelligence of its progress in most countries where popular education attracts any considerable share of public attention. By referring, however, to previous articles on this subject, it will be found that, while the opinions expressed in these are generally in favour of the monitorial method, it was deemed necessary to suggest the dangers arising from a hasty, unreserved, or mechanical adoption of it.* Recent circum-

* See, in particular, the Introduction to this vol. of the Journal, and the Retrospect at the close of the second.

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stances connected with public instruction in the city of Boston, have given a fresh interest to this subject; and as local excitement has mingled with the question relative to the new system, a full and candid consideration of its claims would at present be peculiarly valuable to the interests of education, in our own vicinity, if not in other places. Whether it is possible for us, with what are thought to be our partialities for the system, to present a fair view of the case, our readers must decide. We would only premise that in the following statements we shall adhere as closely as possible to authenticated facts, and to a free exposition of the defects as well as the excellences of the method in question.

Before entering on the peculiar features of this system of instruction, it may not be useless to revert for a few moments to the circumstances in which it originated. To trace distinctly and satisfactorily its actual commencement would be by no means an easy thing; since it would be to state the exact time at which teachers first resorted to the aid of their older and better scholars in teaching the less advanced, or to tell the first instance in which assistance was derived from the use of an usher.

In a document originally submitted to the French Society for Elementary Instruction, the merit of devising the new system, as it is not unfrequently called, is claimed for a French teacher of the name of Paulet, who, it seems, used it with great success in a very numerous school, taught long before the European public had heard of the name of Bell or Lancaster. Mutual instruction, however, as a systematic aid to education, had not been formally acknowledged previous to the philanthropic efforts of Dr Bell in Madras, who, in the schools which he established there, borrowed several useful methods from the existing modes of teaching in the native schools of the East. Whether Joseph Lancaster derived the elements of his system from the reported exertions of Dr Bell, or was originally impelled by his own mind only, from a benevolent desire to extend the benefits of instruction to the large number of destitute children in the vicinity of his school, was a point long controverted in England, and with more heat and animosity than a plain question of facts ought to have excited. Passing this point, however, we come to the unexampled and rapid spread of what became generally known under the name of the Lancasterian system, throughout England, and in some parts of Scotland and Ireland. The diffusion of the system in other countries took place chiefly through the benevolent exer-

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tions of individuals or societies friendly to general improvement among the people.

The next stage of the history of mutual instruction, leads us to the formation of the British and Foreign School Society, established for the express purpose of employing the new method in the extensive dissemination of instruction among the people of the British empire. This noble institution still carries on its benevolent operations in every considerable town in England, in many parts of Ireland, and in the numerous foreign dependencies of the nation.

The influence of the Church gave rise to the National School Society, designed chiefly for the benefit of children whose parents were of the episcopal communion, but not excluding those of dissenters, who, however, generally prefer the schools of the other society, as less embarrassed by peculiar religious influence or restriction. The schools of this society are likewise all taught on the system of mutual instruction. It was as an advocate for this society that Mr Brougham first took ground in the great cause of popular improvement by means of general education. The National Schools form something like a 'parochial system' for the Church of England; and the number of scholars, already immense, is rapidly increasing every year.

On the continent of Europe, the new system prevails extensively, under the auspices of benevolent societies, or of the governments of particular countries. In France, the Society for Elementary Instruction supports a large number of schools, which are continually operating as models in most parts of the country, and to the improvement and increase of which the French Journal of Education is almost exclusively devoted. There is at present a fair prospect that, within a few years, every vicinity in the more populous parts of that country will be furnished with schools, through the indefatigable labours of that excellent society. In the Netherlands, the monitorial system is adopted throughout the country, and is carried to a high pitch of mental as well as mechanical improvement. In Prussia, also, the countenance of the government is extended to general education on this plan; and in Denmark, where public instruction falls under the cognizance of an appropriate officer, the vast majority of the schools is on this method, although the adoption of it is a thing altogether voluntary on the part of the teachers.

In the United States, the most extensive experiment of mutual instruction has been made in the city of New-York. In other places also it has been tried in public schools, and particu-

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larly in Philadelphia, Albany, and several other considerable cities, as well as in schools in various places, supported by private individuals or by associated subscribers. It has been introduced, to some extent, in the public schools of Boston; though the adoption of it is left to the judgment and choice of the instructers. In private schools, also, it has been attempted in a few instances, though without much satisfaction to the teachers; if we except the school of a gentleman extensively known as an early advocate of the system, and as a very successful instructer.

In this sketch of the history of mutual instruction, we have been necessarily very brief. The documents from which we have drawn our information are to be found either in previous numbers of our own Journal, in those of the 'Journal d' Education,' or, in the annual publications of the British and Foreign School Society. Even this hasty abstract, however, we should not have attempted but from a conviction that many of the best informed even of our *teachers* are not aware of the extent of mutual instruction, as a method at this time in actual use in several countries, justly esteemed the most enlightened in Europe, and where it never could have gained its present estimation, had it been, as some among us maintain, a systematic piece of quackery or imposture, or a mere mechanical contrivance for cheapening instruction.

The questions, however, to which chiefly we would at present invite the attention of our readers, are, What are the peculiar features of the system of mutual instruction—what are its defects and what are its excellences—Is it applicable to American schools, generally, and in particular, to the common schools of New England.

The characteristic feature of the system of mutual instruction, is, strictly, the mere circumstance of the employment of the more advanced scholars of a school in the business of teaching. The age and ability of the pupils who are constituted monitors, cannot of course be fixed; as these are nessarily dependent on the comparative or average condition of the particular school in which the system is adopted. Another variable point is the extent to which a monitor is permitted or required to teach,—whether the office is made to extend to the bare hearing of a memory lesson, such as tables in arithmetic, or inflections in in grammar, or embraces the more responsible task of explanation and general intellectual superintendence, as in teaching the

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ground rules of arithmetic, or the general principles of grammar.

A third particular which is also different in different schools, and one of very great importance, is the moral power, or, in plain terms, the authority with which the monitors are intrusted, and consequently the degree of age and character implied as a requisite qualification for the office.

In all of the points just mentioned, all schools and other seminaries admit, to a greater or less extent, of the application of the arguments for or against mutual instruction. In the best ordered colleges it will sometimes happen that a tutor is found in charge of a class or division in which are many students older than himself, and perhaps a few quite as well versed in one or more branches of the studies which he superintends. In the most reputable schools, likewise, the usher is not always superior, either in years or in acquirements, to some of the boys whom he teaches. The chances of incompetency on the part of a monitor are no doubt greater in most instances; as he is confessedly a pupil himself, and only selected for ability in one or a few branches. This circumstance, however, it should never be forgotten, is, in many monitorial schools, entirely obviated; the monitors being, without exception, at a sufficient distance as to years, capacity, and attainments, from the classes which they instruct. For proof of this we can refer many of our readers to their own recollection of the instruction of several of the classes of the Boston high school for girls.

The extent of instruction committed to the care of monitors, and the extent of the master's supervision, would also need in every instance to be clearly and exactly defined, before any thing more than merely a presumptive argument can be founded on the safety or the danger of mutual instruction.

The limits of a monitor's authority, varying, in different schools, from an admonitory caution to a mark of demerit, or perhaps an impatient tap of the monitor's wand, render it nugatory to expatiate either on the laxness or the despotism of the monitorial method. On this and the other topics just mentioned we must, if we argue at all, particularize certain schools, and the administration of individuals, both in regard to instruction and discipline. But, as our readers are sufficiently aware, this would be to leave the ground of the merits of a system, and descend to a question of personal application.

The *advantages* of the system of mutual instruction, as stated by its advocates, are chiefly the following :—

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1st. *Economy of time.* It is unnecessary to remind our readers that, on the common plan, the whole amount of actual benefit which a scholar receives is, (when the school happens to be numerous,) a few minutes' personal attention from the teacher, and the silent and perhaps unaided preparation of the lesson of another hour, and sometimes the study at home demanded for the recitation of the lesson of next day. Now it must be freely conceded, that, when the teacher is efficient and the pupil is faithful, much is really effected in this way. But the imperfection of character, so prevalent among children, usually presents a very different result. An attentive observer in a school-room will commonly perceive the evils of unemployed time and energy working their way into the spirit of the scholars, and wearing down the mind of the teacher. The class actually engaged in reciting to the master are attentive and alert; but the rest are partly idle, or but half occupied, or perhaps indulging their animal spirits in unobserved infringements of order. Employment is perhaps prescribed which *ought* to occupy the classes seated at their desks; but the superintending eye and care of the master are needed to inspire energy and diligence. This needful supervision, however, the master is prevented from giving, by the attention required for the lesson to which he is listening; and all his attempts to do the duty of two persons, by attending to both of these things at once, must not only entail uneasiness and anxiety on himself, but fail, to some extent, in both objects. We do not wish to enter on all the evils arising from this state of matters in particular cases, actual or supposed. But nobody, we think, can be ignorant of the vast amount of valuable time squandered at school, during the time scholars are not saying, and perhaps not even pretending to learn, their lessons. The best regulated schools we have ever seen in other countries or in this, appropriate but a very trivial portion of time to the actual business of tuition; if the calculation is founded on the benefit of individuals. We need not dwell on the defects, in this respect, of schools abroad; in which, perhaps, the inflection of a single noun, or the repetition of a single rule of syntax, furnishes employment for two or more hours of a day; and where each scholar, after having performed his few moments' duty of recitation, sits in absolute idleness, during most of the school time. We would pass at once to our own schools, and select the best taught perhaps, in the wholecountry, we mean the Latin school of Boston, which furnishes an undisputed example of unusual success in the common method of teaching. In the lower forms of

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this school are found a number of young boys, withdrawn, in not a few instances, prematurely, from their common education, and receiving no compensation for this disadvantage, but a lesson or two from the Latin grammar, dismissed, however, at a given hour for the purpose of attending to the writing and other lessons, for which every individual could have found ample time, during his unoccupied moments professedly given to Latin. We may pass next to the primary schools, and the rather as these have been represented as furnished with a superfluity of teachers. A school of this order in Boston, usually contains from fifty to sixty scholars. Let an observer enter any of these not taught on the monitorial plan, and he will see five or ten of the children around the teacher, receiving her more immediate attention, and all the rest more or less orderly according to the dispositions of the children, and the efficiency of the instructer, but mostly idle and languid, save from an occasional check from the teacher's voice or hand. A calculation of the time assigned to the actual instruction of each scholar, (the whole school-time being six hours in a day,) will give precisely six minutes as the fair average.

These evils, however, are inseparable from every attempt to instruct and govern fifty scholars by the unaided efforts of one person. No blame can be imputed to any thing but the system; and we have selected the best schools we know, on purpose, as fair specimens of the best condition of instruction on the common plan.

The advantage, then, said to be derived from the employment of monitors, is that of full and constant employment for all the classes of a school, by the opportunity afforded for immediate or constant recitation, without the necessity of waiting till the teacher is disengaged from one class before another can be heard. Here, however, we may premise two things, perhaps sufficiently obvious, that unless the monitors are competent, the benefit supposed falls to the ground; and if the school is small enough to make but one or two classes, the aid afforded is superfluous.

On the other hand, the advocate for mutual instruction maintains that teaching by *incompetent* monitors is not what he wishes or argues for, and that the question relative to the monitorial system is not whether it is better than the adequate instruction of a master with a small number of scholars, but whether it is better than his attempts to teach so large a number that perhaps the majority of his scholars are always unemployed, or at least

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so little employed that their exertion has but a slight effect on their improvement.

A second consideration advanced in favour of mutual instruction, is the *constant employment* arising from its arrangements, and its consequent tendency to cultivate mental activity, a habit not less conducive to intellectual than to moral improvement. Besides which, no inconsiderable benefit accrues from the animation and cheerfulness inspired by free and constant action. The long periods during which children usually sit motionless, as is the case on the common plan of school management, is equally disadvantageous to mind and body, and communicates, especially to young children, an irksome feeling inseparably associated with the circumstance of being in school. The sedentary posture and the silent application of the mind, are alike unnatural to childhood, and always generate a degree of mental dulness, which operates to the disadvantage of instruction and of voluntary exertion of mind. Judicious care, it is true, often mitigates these evils, and diminishes their ultimate effects. Still, a disadvantage exists, which is obviated entirely by the action of the monitorial system. Here, again, an unanswerable objection may be offered to the plea for mutual instruction. The number of teachers in a school may be such as to afford complete occupation to all the scholars; and this is the case particularly in those schools in which the business of instruction is divided into different branches, assigning each or but a few to one teacher, and consequently affording every class the opportunity of passing to a new lesson or exercise, the moment that one is finished. In this instance, the classes are constantly under the care of the best of *monitors*, competent *adult teachers*.

The combined operation of the two advantages which have been mentioned, as claimed for the monitorial plan, produces very naturally a third, a comparatively *rapid progress* in education. By such progress the advocates of the new method do not, of course, mean one which is more rapid chiefly by appearing so, or which is so in consequence of being more superficial than other methods. A greater amount of time is called into the service of education by the greater number of teachers; and a large extent of ground is traversed by a more constant movement in mental exercise. That this advantage is not a supposed one merely we have the testimony of observers in the numerous schools of mutual instruction in England, France, and other countries, not to mention our own. The documents transcribed or translated in the successive numbers of this Journal, afford

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numerous testimonies on this point. Once more, however, it must, we think, be conceded that this great advantage in education will be best secured by multiplying the number of grown up teachers; and if it were practicable to furnish every school with several instructers instead of one, there would evidently be no need of recourse to mutual instruction or any other expedient for facilitating individual exertion. As most schools, however, are actually situated, the argument of the advocates of the new system, though it may lose value when applied to the higher departments of instruction in populous cities, becomes deeply important in relation to common education, whether in cities or in country districts.

A fourth argument, and one of considerable moment in regard to the interests of education, is that *the employment of monitors prepares many of the pupils of every school for becoming, in due season, well qualified teachers.* The want of good instructers is still extensively felt in many parts of the United States; and the rapid progress of popular opinion on the value of good education, is constantly preparing room for candidates who can present the proper guaranties for ability to teach in a superior manner. Notwithstanding all these inducements, however, there is not as yet in the whole country a single competent institution for giving a professional education to teachers, if we except the seminary established by Mr Carter at Lancaster, in Massachusetts. As a useful expedient, therefore, for the practical preparation of instructers, monitorial teaching claims the notice of the community. From the earliest date of competent progress in every branch of science, the pupil of a monitorial school becomes himself a teacher, and assumes the responsibility and the duties which are perhaps to occupy his after life. An early and valuable familiarity with the details of school management, is thus acquired, which enable the individual to pass, at a proper age, to the more arduous station of the charge of a whole school. The advantages thus obtained, however, are chiefly of a practical or even a mechanical kind: they regard the routine of exercise, rather than an enlarged power over the mind, or a greater facility in understanding and developing its resources. The best use, perhaps, of the monitorial method would be that of employing it for the benefit of those among the older and better scholars of the public schools, who actually were designed for the business of teaching, or who were willing to devote themselves, for a proper length of time, to the labour necessary for the acquisition of experience and skill in instruction. To this

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practical preparation a higher course of study and of strictly personal application might be added, at proper seminaries, according to the abilities or the ambition of the candidate.—A certificate mentioning the particular school in which an applicant had taught as a monitor, the length of time during which he had been thus employed, the success of his attempts at instruction, and his own moral qualifications, would be something vastly better than the present preposterous plan of trying to ascertain from the lips of the applicant what can appear satisfactorily nowhere but in the school-room. In this way, too, a professional spirit would be created among teachers, without which very little can ever be hoped for, in the way of extensive improvement, and especially in common education.

A fifth consideration, and one never to be overlooked in arrangements for public education, whether these are made at the common expense of a community, or by the philanthropic exertions of private individuals, or of societies formed for the purpose. We allude to *economy in the expenditure of money*. This is an argument, we are well aware, which every friend to education and to general improvement will wish to see used with great caution. And wherever a disposition is felt to adopt a liberal though expensive course of education, it demands a cordial approbation, and more especially if the expense incurred falls on a whole community equally. In this case, the argument for economical methods of instruction is set aside by the generous spirit of those at whose cost education is conducted, and who are of course the proper party to determine such a question.

At the same time, it should never be forgotten that the older and more expensive system is not therefore the better, and that if one teacher is required to instruct more scholars than an individual can, to advantage, (which in most of our public schools is actually the state of things,) the monitorial plan or any similar one, even under many disadvantages, may prove a better one, by the more constant employment of the pupils; and instead of 'paying the better price for the better article,' the community may be doing the very reverse, under a fancied notion of liberality.

Pursuing our subject in the manner proposed at the commencement of this article, we come next to consider the *disadvantages* alleged against the system of mutual instruction.

The first of these usually advanced, is the *incompetency of the pupils employed as monitors*. This sweeping charge we have incidentally taken notice of already. The system of mutual instruction as such admits of no arrangement by which a scholar

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is to become a monitor till he is well qualified for the office. If in any school an exception to this rule exists, the blame ought to be with the master and not with the system he professes to adopt. But the question is sometimes put in this form—Can a boy or a girl ever be found adequate to the responsible task of teaching? The answer is obvious—whatever he or she happens to understand. It is a question of degrees. Cannot a boy of eight or ten teach a young child the alphabet, or spelling, or reading, or the tables in arithmetic, or the ground rules, and more especially if the master shows him how to do it, and assists and superintends him? How soon does the right age for the office of teaching begin?—is at ten, or twelve, or fifteen, or twenty, or not till later still? These are questions of circumstances and of expediency in individual instances, and can never be determined in a general conclusion. The question, however, is sometimes put in another form—Can a monitor ever teach so well as an adult instructer? Were this the state of the argument, absolutely, every body would reply in the negative. But to give any force to this question, we must put the cases on a true level. A monitor is required to teach but one class a time, and a class of perhaps but five or ten at the utmost; while a teacher is expected to teach fifty or a hundred scholars, in perhaps a dozen different classes, and must assume the care of all, and sustain it constantly. The question, then, to be fairly put, should embrace all these modifications, and after all is to be satisfactorily determined, only by an actual comparison, and not by any general presumption, however plausible. Some of the most eminent teachers in Europe, and a few in this country, have, after years of fair experiment, reported in favour of the new method. And in the two known instances in this country in which an opposite result was obtained, there were more than one very competent teacher in each school; and the adoption of the monitorial system was superfluous.

A more serious objection to monitorial teaching is, that *it is applicable chiefly to the more mechanical exercises of instruction*, and that where a wide range of thought and a considerable fluency of expression are required, to render a difficult subject intelligible and interesting, it is inadequate to the communication of knowledge. This is true chiefly of the higher branches of study, however, and has very little concern with the business of common schools; and, after all, monitoral teaching does a great deal, if it relieves the teacher of the burden of the more mechanical parts of instruction and recitation, and leaves him

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free to render his services where they are most needed—in the more intellectual departments of his business. This is exactly the use made of the system in the Edinburgh High School, with so much success.

Another and a more formidable objection still is, that *monitors cannot, owing to the immaturity of their own characters, possess that steady and pervading authority which is needed in teaching*. This argument would be unanswerable, were monitors entrusted with an arbitrary control; and in some schools, perhaps, a proper limit may not have been applied to their jurisdiction. This neglect, however, is a personal fault of the teacher, and not of the system. An appeal from the decision of the monitor, is always permitted and attended to in monitorial schools rightly taught. Remissness in the functions of the monitor is also sufficiently provided for by the vigilance of the class, if comparative rank is used as an incitement to exertion; or by the supervision of the instructer, who, if he manages rightly, reserves his own attention free for the general inspection and superintendence of the whole school, through a vigilant observance of the monitors.

Notwithstanding these preventives, however, it is said that occasional connivance or occasional impatience, on the part of the monitors will sometimes interfere with a steady and impartial discharge of duty; that the 'little brief authority' will be met with petulance on the part of its subjects; that the spirit of disregard and defiance will creep in between the temporary teacher and his pupils; and that an unfavourable moral influence will thus communicate itself to the dispositions of the young. If these things are so, they suggest perhaps, in the first place, the restriction of the monitor's power, and, in the next, the selection of monitors from pupils of sufficient age and steadiness of mind, as recommended in a former part of this article,—but not necessarily the abolition or rejection of the system of mutual instruction.

Another complaint often made against the system is, that *it deranges the order, and disturbs the stillness of a school*. This may be the apparent result to the eye of an observer who does not understand the operation of the monitorial plan, or who contrasts it with the method prevailing in schools as commonly taught. All the classes in a school of mutual instruction are in employment at the same moment; but all their occupations are conducted with a great degree of exactness and order: it is the number of classes in exercise that causes a temporary confusion to the eye of a spectator. The case is nearly the same as in a

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busy hive, where amidst apparent confusion all is regularity and system, because each individual or class of the whole multitude is wholly and intensely occupied with its own work. Silence cannot be constantly maintained on a plan which prescribes constant employment for all. But noise, if it be but the result of interest and occupation, is by no means an evil. The best regulated Sunday schools afford full proof of this: they are taught in a similar manner, but neither the sacredness of the employment, nor the instruction of the scholars, is found to be in the least diminished by the buzz of earnest voices in the exercises of the various classes.

Mutual instruction, it is said, *is necessarily superficial.* It is chiefly of a mechanical character. It prescribes much recitation and little or no study. This is another of those objections which is founded on superficial views of the system. In elementary lessons, it is true, oral repetition is employed, as the chief means of producing impressions on the memory. This, however, is perhaps an advantage. During the early part of education, the imagination and the senses not less than the understanding should be called in to the aid of the memory. The silent and close application of the mind should come on gradually, beginning at later stages of progress, and harmonizing better with the development of the juvenile intellect. Mutual instruction does nothing to hinder solitary application and profound thought, when the mind is able for them. Besides the evil is sufficiently guarded against by the very nature of the case. Any subject or exercise requiring strict mental exertion cannot be mastered by oral recitation: it must be conquered by thought and research; there is no danger of its being attempted in the way of mere simultaneous repetition.

Our present limits prevent us from entering more fully, at present, into this interesting subject. We have attempted a fair exposition of the history and the leading characteristics of the system of mutual instruction. A slight review of the subject will suffice to shew that this method, like most others, is good or bad as it is applied, and that in the hands of one teacher it may effect much improvement, while in those of another it proves abortive and injurious. It requires a peculiar vigilance and activity in the teacher; and without these it will degenerate into worthless routine and parade. Properly superintended, however, it may accelerate instruction very much, and communicate a spirit and action to school exercise which may not only impart an interest to education, but give a salutary impulse to the mind.

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Under due restrictions, then, we should be happy to see the monitorial method generally adopted, and especially in common and primary schools; as it is peculiarly suited to promote the improvement of instruction, where large numbers are taught, and most of these schools stand in need of the application of some means of accelerating the elementary stages of education, so as to leave room for at least a portion of general knowledge and useful science, as a part of the acquisitions made in early life. If the new system, however, is to be extensively, adopted, it should commence its operation in the primary schools, that it may early become familiar to children, and that no time may be lost by remaining stationary during the introduction of a method the very novelty of which is apt to embarrass for some time the movements both of the pupils and the teacher. Carried regularly upwards from the first exercises of the schools, it would be natural and easy, because habitual; and all the evils usually attending abrupt changes would be avoided.

The pupils selected for monitors, however, should, as mentioned before, be chosen with great caution, and should always be of age sufficient to produce a proper degree of respect, and of character sufficiently mature to feel their responsibleness and act upon it with fidelity and effect. A valuable service would in this way be rendered to the community, in a supply of well qualified candidates for the business of instruction.

Of the pamphlets mentioned at the head of this article we have not room to say much; nor is it necessary to quote largely from them. The substance of the statements contained in the first mentioned we transcribed in our last; and the pamphlet of Mr Bailey is devoted chiefly to considerations connected with official management in relation to the High School for Girls during the time he so successfully discharged the important office of its instruction. To the efforts of this gentleman in that institution the city and the country at large stand indebted for perhaps the finest model school ever exhibited on the plan of mutual instruction; and yet, as may be observed from occasional hints dropped in his pamphlet, he is by no means an enthusiastic advocate for the unqualified adoption of monitorial instruction. That this method, rightly understood and administered, is excellent, his own success gave the most satisfying proof; and that it needs a pretty copious assistance from personal vigilance, and a constant use of restrictions and counteracting measures, he explicitly mentions when adverting to the merits of the system in relation to common schools.

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INTELLIGENCE.

MOUNT PLEASANT CLASSICAL INSTITUTION, AMHERST, MASS.

[Resumed from last Number.]

Departments of Instruction and Appropriation of Time.

SINCE some of the youth under our care, are qualifying themselves for the different classes of the College, or University course, some commencing with us at a very early period, and pursuing an extensive and liberal course with reference to professional life, and others, at a later period, preparing for commercial or agricultural pursuits, our arrangements of study are intended to have regard to the specific objects in view.

In addition to our present means of instruction in the department of Modern Literature, two other Professors from Europe are expected in the ensuing Spring.

In the provisions which have been made, and those which are still to be realized, in this department, we wish to be fully understood as in no sense depreciating the importance of Classic learning. We make no objection to—we rather admire,—the enthusiasm of the professional man, who carries his pocket editions of the embodied genius of antiquity as he cherishes the remembrances of childhood. The scholar should find himself at home in the whole range of classic association. We hold it a sound maxim of human policy, however, that, in education as in commerce and politics, a constant regard should be had to the progressive history of mind. The two last centuries have thrown a flood of light upon its march. Nations which were not—*are*. Languages, which two centuries ago possessed hardly a legendary literature, are become the repositories of new worlds of thought. The character of the political and commercial intercourse of nations is also changed. These facts, while they deduct nothing from the sterling value of the legacy sent down to us by the gifted spirits of earlier times—yet, enlarging and enriching, as they do, the whole field, a rational inference certainly is,—that, (while intellectual discipline should be constantly kept in view as of paramount importance,) only such parts of the field should be occupied, as will best furnish the individual for the career to which he is destined.

On the relative importance of the Elementary Department we apprehend there exists, to some extent, a mistake;—a consequence of which is, that the first years of life are often worse than lost. From the nature of the human mind, it cannot be doubted, that it requires even a more skilful hand, to adjust and keep in successful operation, machinery so delicate, aiding in the discovery of its principles, and familiarizing their use, than does the application of principles already discovered, and the direction of powers already familiar. We are happy in having secured for this department a gentleman of long and familiar acquaintance with the practical science of mind, from the earliest periods of its development.

In the Commercial Department, the design is to pursue such a course of Elementary and Mathematical studies, of French, Spanish, and English reading, Rhetoric, and Penmanship at the desk of the business room, in book-keeping, and transcribing and drawing up business forms, as may, at the age of sixteen or seventeen, introduce youth to clerkships in extensive commercial houses.

In the acquisition of Languages we conceive the best facilities to be those which afford opportunity for reading, writing, and speaking with native teachers,—having as much regard, as is consistent with circumstances, to the natural method—a constant reference to the best Lexicons, and Grammars, and habitual critical reviewing.

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The first lessons in the Greek Department, are on the Modern Greek pronunciation.* Having become somewhat familiar with the alphabet, and the more striking peculiarities of the pronunciation, the classes enter upon the Grammar, (that of Prof. Bambas is principally used—with Goodrich's and Butman's as they advance,—committing to memory the parts of speech, and familiarizing their accidents by writing them upon the *black boards*, always with the written character of the present Greeks, in which they have lessons from the instructer (himself a Greek.) Familiar examples, by way of illustrating and fixing in memory the principles, are given by dictation and written by the pupil—these are extended, as he proceeds, and constitute the first essays at translation.† Jacob's Greek Reader, is, at present, the first book put into the hands of the classes. Pronunciation, with the theory of the accents as a part of the orthography of the language, is never lost sight of. After the first pages of Jacob's Reader are thoroughly possessed, the pupil is introduced, to Æsop's Fables, (Cory's Edition)—the remaining part of Jacob's Excerpta,—Xenophon's Cyropœdia and Anabasis—and Basilius' Encyclopedia, a work in four vols. embracing the rarest selections from the range of Greek literature. During the whole course (which it will be perceived is accommodated specially to those who commence at an early age, and remain for a considerable period,) the exercises in writing are continued with declamations from the Orators. A less extensive course is pursued by those who commence the Latin first, and whose circumstances allow them less time for classical pursuits. The books required by the Colleges, for which they are designed, are read.

In the department of Latin, the same general course is pursued with reference to those designed for the college classes. The earlier exercises are rendered as simple as practicable. After the introductory lessons in translating and parsing (principally from dictation,) the exercises of the first pages of Fisk's Adams' Grammar, and Jacob's Latin Reader are read. To these succeed Græcæ Historiæ Epitome, Burman's Phædri Fabulæ, with English notes.—Cornelius Nepos, Gould's Selections from Ovid,—Sallust, Cicero, Virgil, &c. and exercises in double translation, in writing Latin with Dana's Latin Tutor. For those who have leisure to pursue an extensive course, selections are made from the range of the Roman Classics. In this, as in all the departments, frequent revisions are made.

In Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, the extensive course of reading, (principally from the French) pursued at the National Academy at West Point, is adopted. The gentleman sustaining this department is from that Institution.

In Botany and Natural History, occasional familiar Lectures are expected from M. Rostan, late Professor of Natural History and Botany at Marseilles.

Arrangements have also been made for a regular course in Chemistry.

In Belles Lettres and Oratory,—Intellectual and Moral Philosophy, and Civil Polity, the course is such as will be accommodated to the circumstances of the classes as they advance. Finding no occasion to depart from the spirit of the Roman School (though we regard the purest and most impressive elo-

* While we have all due respect for the English pronunciation of the Greek, as favouring the *quantities* and *harmony* of the ancient verse, for the same reason as that of the German virtuoso, who could hear no sweetness in the harmonies of the Italian, unless it were breathed in the music of his mother tongue; while at the same time we would not contest the point with the *Erasmian*, though (on the authority of Wetstein,) 'Erasmus had *himself no faith in it*,' having written his Dialoge (as Vossius assures us) under the influence of a humorous trick played upon him by a Greek:—were there no other arguments before us than these;—that the Greek continued to be a *living language*, spoken and taught at Constantinople and elsewhere, by *learned native Greeks*, with the *native pronunciation*, until the middle of the 15th century,—that there have since, until the present time, continued a body, though small, of *Greek Literati*,—and that a strong probability now exists that our intercourse with Greece, as a nation, will render a knowledge of the pronunciation of the language of practical value to the scholar, we should not hesitate to adopt it. The classes, however, before leaving this department, are thoroughly taught the pronunciation common in this country.

† At this stage we have need of a small and simple work (now in progress) as an introduction to the first exercises of Jacob's Reader.

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quence, that of nature,) our sections during part of the year, have daily exercises in the Oratorical Room. Original themes and translations are read weekly at the desk, by the senior boys. The younger are exercised early in writing letters, and in translating from the languages with which they are occupied. A course of reading from the choicest English classics, with rhetorical analysis is designed for the more advanced sections.

In the appropriation of time for study and relaxation, we are accustomed to have reference to that principle of our nature, which, especially in childhood and early youth, requires succession and alternation of pursuits—observing always not to distract the mind by too great a variety. In all these arrangements the most exact punctuality and order are insisted upon, as having a direct and powerful influence on the subsequent character.

The musters during each day are five. The whole number being divided into decades, a Præfect is assigned to each,—a Registrar to the whole. At the moment the bell ceases to ring, the Registrar pronounces the word *place*. Each Præfect in order, (beginning with the first,) having ascertained, at a glance, the absentees if any, from his section, at once repeats aloud their names with the number of the section,—the Registrar checking them in his roll. Thus, in half a minute after the bell ceases, all are ready for the business in hand. No boy is allowed to enter the ranks upon the muster grounds, after the word *Place* is pronounced, but is reported and recorded absent. These reports, it should be remarked, which also take cognizance of every irregularity, are referred to the Meeting of Instructers, read at the Saturday lecture, and transferred to the volumes.

In summer, the morning bell for rising is heard at half past 4 o'clock, allowing half an hour for washing, and other personal attentions. At 5 the bell assembles the sections with their Præfects and Master of Gymnastics, on the muster grounds. The hour is occupied in the various exercises and games of the Gymnasium. At 6, they proceed, in order, to the class rooms, where they are occupied until 7—the hour of breakfast. From breakfast they repair to the chapel for worship—after which they are upon the play grounds, under our general inspection, until 8,—at this hour, they are assembled in the class rooms, and engaged in study and recitation till 12—with an intermission of fifteen minutes—a part of which is occupied in the muscular exercises of the arms, &c. The hour from 12 to 1, except during the excessive heat of summer, is passed in the gymnastic games of the grove. At 1, they repair, in sections, to the wash rooms—at half past 1, in order, to the dining hall. From dinner until half past 2, they are again upon the play grounds. At this hour they resume their studies and recitations in the several departments, where they remain till half past 6, from which time till half past 7, they are upon the gymnastic grounds, or as is usually the case during two or three days of the week, occupied a part of the time in bathing. Half past 7 is the hour of the evening meal, after which worship is attended in chapel—at 8 the small boys retire—the senior boys study till 9, when all retire.

Terms &c.—Having enlarged the original plan of the Institution, and consequently the number of Professors; assuming, as we do, the whole care of procuring apparel, Books, Stationary, &c. which are invariably charged at cost; sustaining necessarily large expenses in the arrangements made to procure for the Library, the rarest books in the several Languages taught,—for apparatus &c.—and having concluded, for the more successful accomplishment of our designs as a family, to limit our number beyond alteration to one hundred,* we are obliged to add fifty dollars to the original terms.

The annual charge is therefore two hundred and fifty dollars, one half pay-

* On this latter consideration alone, we are happy in having had the assurance of many parents, whose sons are with us, that this measure would be perfectly satisfactory. In addition to our present number (68) the names of fifteen have been entered.

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able semi-annually in advance. This charge includes tuition, board, room, furniture, fuel, lights, mending, and washing.

For apparel, books, stationary &c. an amount of from ten to forty dollars, according to the distance of the Parent or Guardian, is always expected to be in advance. Students, within the limited number,—from the ages of four to sixteen, are received during any part of the sessions.

Small Monies intended for the incidental expenditures of the Students, are, in all cases, to be passed to the credit of the parent or guardian,—given always at our discretion—entered in a Pass-Book furnished to each, and charged in account.

The vacations are two in each year; the one continues two weeks from the first of April, the other three weeks from the first Thursday in August.

Students may remain at the Institution during the vacations,—making short excursions with those of the Instructers who remain;—or travel, with others. No additional expense is incurred to those who travel, except their own bills, which are under the inspection of the gentlemen with whom they travel.

The Annual Examination, occupying from six to ten days, commences on the 20th of May. The regular course of studies is resumed on the third day following the close of the examination.

As the Government of the Institution is strictly supervisory, the Principals or their associates remaining in constant and familiar intercourse with the students, both during their studies and diversions,—the pupils never, except in special cases, leave the family but in their company.

Particular attention is paid to the formation of courteous and gentlemanly manners. In the charge of the smaller boys, especially, and to a considerable extent those of every age, affectionate and assiduous maternal attentions are regarded as of first importance.

The simple uniform worn at the Institution may always be better procured, or at least, made on the ground.

Students, are, in no case, received for a term less than one year.

OFFICERS OF THE SCHOOL.

Chauncey Colton, Francis Fellowes, Principals; John Casmr. Rostan, Department of Modern Languages; Calvin Colton, Chaplain,—and Department of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy; Chauncey Pomeroy, Elementary English and Commercial Department; Chauncey Colton, Belles Lettres and Oratory; F. Fellowes, Latin and Greek Languages and Literature; Gregory Perdicari, Ancient and Modern Greek Language; W. P. N. Fitzgerald, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Drawing; Sidney L. Johnson, Latin Language; George Montague, Assistant in the Commercial Department, and Clerk.

INSTITUTE AT FLUSHING, LONG ISLAND.

[The account of this seminary, from which we have extracted the 'plan of instruction,' is entitled 'The application of Christianity to Education.' It is a spirited and sensible pamphlet, containing many excellent thoughts on the subject of education. We should have been glad to draw more largely from its contents, had our limits permitted. Among the various excellences of the following plan we would mention, as well deserving a diligent attention, the peculiar modification of mutual instruction which the author has adopted. This we think a valuable practical improvement in education: it affords a good illustration of the arrangement suggested at p. 291 of our present number.]

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Plan of Instruction.

The plan on which it is proposed to carry the foregoing principles into practice, is to form a household,* (as is now usual in the most respectable seminaries,) consisting of the Principal, the Governess, the Teachers, the Tutors, and the Pupils; by stating the different duties of whom, an idea will best be given of the manner in which things will be conducted.

The Principal † will devote himself to the management and immediate inspection of the whole concern; to which he will endeavour to give, not so much the ordinary aspect of a school, as that of a friendly community associated for the mutual improvement of its members. Hence it will be his aim to carry on the work of education, in the various occupations and amusements of the pupils, hardly less than in their stated studies, and by a frank and affectionate demeanour, to convince them that he is mindful of their present innocent enjoyment, as well as studious of their permanent welfare. Since he embarks in the undertaking with little expectation of personal emolument, with considerable pecuniary risk, and as success must be the purchase of his own exertions, the public have every reasonable security for his faithful discharge of a trust, which, the prospect of usefulness alone has induced him to assume.

The Governess will have a motherly care over the juvenile family, and superintend the domestic arrangements.‡

The Teachers will act as assistants to the principal in the duties of discipline and instruction. As the cultivation of religious principle will be constantly kept in view, no one will be employed in the capacity of a teacher whose example would at all interfere with the furtherance of that object. There will be one teacher for the Latin and Greek, another for the Spanish and French languages, a third for mathematics, natural science, &c. Belle Lettres studies being the department of the principal.

The Tutors.—These will be lads not under seventeen years of age; considerably advanced in the various studies to be pursued. For their services as tutors or monitors in the modified system of mutual instruction which will be carried on, they will receive their support and the completion of their education, gratuitously. One of these will be appointed over every nine pupils, as their instructer in certain studies, under the eye of a teacher, and to act as a guardian or elderly companion to them at all times—reference being had in this connexion of the tutors with their classes to the respective ages, tempers, and acquirements of both parties. As only the most exemplary youth will be thus distinguished—as it will be their immediate interest to discharge their duties faithfully, (for no longer than they do so will they be retained,)—as they will be greatly in advance of those over whom they are placed, both in years and in learning—and as they will be in the confidence of the principal, as well as of the scholars, it is easy to perceive how, with such assistants, a monitorial system can be conducted with great efficiency. If the Lancasterian method as practised in the High Schools succeeds, this certainly must, where the monitors will be of a higher description and have stronger inducements to attend properly to their business. Especially in communicating a right tone of feeling to the young community, in nipping disorder in the bud, and in applying those maxims of moral education which have been detailed, great advantages will be derived from a body of tutors having their interests identified with those of the establishment, and acting conscientiously from pious principle—for this latter, as will appear from the sequel, is supposed. The business of the Insti-

* The building is 111 feet in front, and 48 in depth; three stories high, besides the basement; having a Recitation Hall, Dormitories, Lecture Rooms, Dining Room, &c., all on an extensive scale. As it has been erected for the purpose, every desirable accommodation is provided. Attached to it are upwards of six acres of land, so that the pupils will have every advantage in the way of exercise, gardening, &c., without leaving the bounds.

† Rev. William Augustus Muhlenberg.

‡ This station will be filled by a lady every way qualified for it, from whom the pupils will meet with as much maternal kindness and attention, as they would be likely to find any where abroad.

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tute will be so arranged as to give them sufficient time for the prosecution of their own studies. They will have an apartment for themselves, and will recite only to the Principal or the teachers. Of course they will be allowed no discretionary authority over their classes; and to give instruction only as far as they are perfectly qualified to do so.*

The Pupils will be divided into classes of nine or a less number, in order that by so minute a subdivision, each individual may find his proper rank. Although they will receive their instruction chiefly through the medium of the tutors, yet it will be under the constant superintendence of the higher teachers, who, frequently, perhaps daily, will examine the classes themselves. Besides, they will attend lectures on those branches of knowledge which can be best communicated in that way, and be questioned by the lecturer

They will wear a plain uniform, to prevent vain competition in dress.

They will board at commons and lodge in single beds, in spacious and airy dormitories, together with the tutors. The whole of the afternoon, from dinner to supper, they will be obliged to spend in healthful exercise. By means of early rising thus much leisure can be afforded.

They will be always within the bounds of the Institute, and, as far as is deemed proper, under the eye of their instructers.

Their religious studies besides the Bible, will be in such works as Porteus' Evidences of Christianity, Hornes' Abridgment of his Introduction, Archbishop Secker's Lectures on the Church Catechism, Gastrell's Christian Institutes, Jones on the Trinity, &c.; and, as practical books for those of a proper age, Doddridge's Rise and Progress, Mason on Self Knowledge, Scougal's Life of God in the Soul of Man, &c. Besides a course of familiar lectures adapted especially to the years of the juvenile hearers.

Their secular studies will comprise all the branches of a thorough English Education, including Mathematics, Natural History, and Philosophy, as far as they can be advantageously pursued, Vocal Music; Instrumental Music and Drawing, when, for either of them there is decided talent. The Latin and Greek, or Spanish and French languages, according as the pupil is destined for the counting room, or the college. The classical course may be continued until it is equivalent for a collegiate one; as it will be in the case of the tutors, with whom the pupils, after they are sufficiently advanced, may study and recite only to the principal and higher teacher. No pains will be spared to make well grounded scholars in the dead languages. When a boy is likely to be no more than a smatterer, with his parents' consent, his attention will be directed to something else.

* The Lancasterian system as generally conducted, is defective in the character of its monitors, who, from their frequent equality in age with those they teach, and their trifling advance beyond them in learning, are always more or less incapable of their duty. This conviction is the result of experience. In 1822 the author succeeded in getting a public school, on the monitorial system, established by law, in the city of Lancaster, Penn. Naturally anxious for its success, he gave it a large portion of his time and attention. With the co-operation of the intelligent teacher of the male department, Mr Alexander Varian, various modifications of the Lancasterian system were devised and adopted. None however proved satisfactory, the evil of inefficient monitors remaining, until the course was adopted of forming a company of select monitors, to whom the name of *tutors* was given to avoid confounding their office with the old one. From the former monitors and elsewhere, a number of deserving lads were sought out. A contract was made with their parents that for their services as assistants in the school, they should receive instruction from the teacher, in such higher branches of English education as they were fit for. The contract was entered into for one year, in the course of which the experiment was found to succeed perfectly. Each of the tutors kept his own class, allowing none of the others to interfere with it. Thus he had a definite responsibility, and as the result of his labour could be seen, an honourable stimulus to industry. By means of assistant monitors and other contrivances, they had sufficient time for their own learning, which by common consent was allowed to be greater than it had been in previous schools, where they had no other duties than their studies. As to the improvement of the scholars generally, it was incomparably beyond that under the old arrangement. The plan is still pursued with the same success in Lancaster, and at the suggestion of Roberts Vaux, Esq., whose opinion on subjects of public usefulness is entitled to more than ordinary weight, it has been introduced into some of the principal monitorial schools of Philadelphia.

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In a word, the pupils will be the children of a family regulated solely with a view to their improvement, in religion, learning, and manners.

The author anticipates but one objection to his system—that which will be styled its *sectarianism*. If by this is meant, that it will promote among its subjects an attachment to the principles of the Protestant Episcopal Church, the charge is admitted. As an Episcopal clergyman, having a course of religious instruction under his control, he naturally expects, that such more or less will be the effect. It cannot be otherwise. His duty in this respect will be the same in the school, as it is in the pulpit. In interweaving christianity with education, of course the former will be exhibited, as it appears in those institutions which he believes to be entirely scriptural, and which he is solemnly bound to support. But, if by *sectarianism* be meant any approach to that spirit which identifies the pale of salvation with the boundary of a certain church; or to that, which does not distinguish between essentials and nonessentials, as the objects of zeal, in a particular form of christianity; or to that which does not recognize in the principles of truth and virtue, a bond of union superior to that of any visible forms; in a word, if it be bigotry, he disclaims it. It is not the spirit of his church. It is not the spirit of the brighest ornaments of that church. It is not the spirit of the gospel. He adopts the trite maxim of a father, 'In rebus necessariis, unitas; in non necessariis, libertas; in omnibus, charitas.'

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Elements of History, Ancient and Modern, with Historical Charts. By J. E. Worcester, A. A. L. S. H. S. Third Edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 12mo. pp. 339.

An Historical Atlas, containing Charts of General History, Sacred History, Ancient Chronology, Sovereigns of Europe, Modern Chronology, Historical Charts of England and France, Charts of American History, Charts of Biography and Mythology. By J. E. Worcester, A. A. L. S. H. S. Third Edition, Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. Cambridge. Hilliard, Metcalf, & Co. 1828.

Questions adapted to the Third Edition of Worcester's Elements of History. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 12mo. pp. 60.

Of the Elements and the Atlas mentioned above we had occasion to express our opinion on the appearance of the first edition. We still think these books the best adapted of any of the kind to the uses of a general history for schools and academies. They are more complete, more exact, and better suit-

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ed to aid the business of practical instruction, than any of the compilations which it was customary to use.

The present edition possesses the advantages of a careful revision, a few alterations in arrangement, and an additional quantity of matter. The Atlas has also received considerable improvement, and in particular the valuable accession of a chart of sacred history.

Before leaving these works, we would mention the volume of questions, as affording a useful aid to both teacher and scholar, as fitted to guide the application of the learner, and give accuracy to his knowledge of history, while it redeems much time, and supersedes the necessity of a vast deal of labour to the instructer.—To teachers, who make use of the Epitome of this work with young scholars or in common schools, the Elements and the Atlas will prove very serviceable, by presenting more enlarged views of the subject of instruction, and enabling the teacher to explain more satisfactorily the lessons from the smaller work.

It would we think be an advantage to instructers, generally, as well as to the more diligent classes of students, if, in subsequent editions, Mr Worcester would add to his work a pretty full list of references to good authors and standard works on history, so as to direct the minds of those who make use of the Elements to the sources of full and authentic information relating to at least the more important events introduced in that work. Something effectual would thus be done towards promoting the spirit of investigation, one great object in the mental influences of the study of history; and a valuable assistance would be afforded towards the improvement of actual instruction as imparted by the teacher.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

A Visit to the Sea-side. In two Parts. Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 18mo. pp. 286.

This story is written with uncommon talent, and is finely adapted to impart a silent and gradual improvement of disposition to its young readers, All undue excitement of feeling and imagination seems to be carefully avoided; and the interest of the production lies chiefly in the probability of the events, and the exceedingly natural and happy manner in which the characters are delineated.

It is very seldom that we find a book which we can without hesitation put into the hands of children. In the present instance we can do more. The author of this excellent story seems to understand the nature of children so thoroughly, to sympathize so fully with their happiness, and to entertain so enlightened views of their improvement, that, in presenting them her book, we introduce them to a friend whose conversation is sure to instruct and captivate them, and to leave impressions equally agreeable and useful.

Helen and Maria. Part I. Boston. Wait, Green, & Co. 1828. 18mo. pp. 14.

There is a very interesting simplicity of thought and expression, and an unusual felicity of moral sentiment, throughout this little story. Its effect is in fine unison with the serenity of nature and the tranquillity of innocence, and cannot fail to remain in the mind, and exert a happy influence on the character of its readers.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

POPULAR EDUCATION.

[From the Prospectus of the French Journal of Education.]

We have engaged, in publishing our prospectus, to present at the end of this periodical work a picture of human knowledge, and we now think it our duty to explain the plan upon which we intend to regulate our proceedings, and the end for which we undertake this work.

It would doubtless be absurd to wish to make all men learned and erudite, but it is just and useful to the general interest of society, to offer to every member of it the light which may direct them in the different careers which their various birth and fortune call them to follow. Ignorance can never be a blessing: instruction proportioned to the wants of each individual can never be an evil. Every resource is offered to those who wish to make researches in the different branches of knowledge which the genius of man has conquered; but they are almost entirely wanting to those who only seek general knowledge, for the wants or for the pleasures of life. It is this void which exists in our library of instruction that we would endeavour to fill. We shall not then confine ourselves entirely to purely scientific details; but there are few sciences which have not their use; for it is necessity, much more than curiosity, which has been the prime mover of the researches of the human mind. It is to this point alone that we shall confine ourselves; thus, to proceed methodically, after having offered to the earliest age the sources of elementary instruction which will aid in the development of its rising intelligence, we shall present to the child, then to the

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young man advancing into life the picture of various knowledge, the utility of which his mind and heart must acknowledge at every new step in his career.

Geography, history, mathematical and physical sciences, the different branches of natural history, reduced to their general principles, and considered in the point of view which philosophy most regards, that of general utility, will alternately, in our work pay their tribute to the rising generation, and bend to the level of its intelligence until it can rise to their height.

There surely is not a man, in whatever condition Providence may have placed him, or whatever may be the profession he embraces, who will not one day congratulate himself for having acquired a tinge of these different branches of knowledge. Some will be directly useful to him in his profession; others will add to the pleasures of his life, or soften its pains. What merchant, navigator or traveller has not felt the necessity of knowing a little geography? How many mothers have regretted not being able to trace upon a map the steps of their sons in the midst of dangers or on distant voyages; and not being able to represent to themselves the distance which separated them, the climate under which they lived, the manners of the people among whom they dwelt.

In what age can history have an object of greater or more general utility, than in that which is one day to fill the most instructive or most terrible of its pages?

To what industrious pursuit are geometry and mechanics in their general principles, entirely foreign? And if we consider the numerous applications of chemistry and physics to the arts and manufactures, to what class of men will they be found entirely useless?

It is to natural history that the physical history of man belongs; and it is that which furnishes him with the most valuable knowledge and means for the support and prolongation of his existence. In short, could botany and the most useful of the arts, agriculture, find men indifferent to the benefits, whose fertile sources they open and make known?

Such are, in a few words, some of the considerations which made us devise the plan which we have announced, and in the execution of which we are zealously occupied—for offering to childhood and youth the means of acquiring early a general idea of all the knowledge which the human mind has succeeded in conquering from nature and from time.

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EFFECTS OF EDUCATION.

[The following paragraphs are extracted from 'The Effects of Education upon a Country Village. An Address delivered before the Brighton School Fund Corporation, March 30, 1828. By G. W. Blagden, Pastor of the Evangelical Congregational Society, Brighton, Mass.' We regret that this valuable production came to hand so late as to render it impossible for us at present to do any thing more than merely mention it, with our most earnest recommendation to all our readers, whether parents or teachers, and indeed to all who take any interest in the best prosperity of their country.]

In the first place, education teaches the inhabitants of a village to avail themselves of their *present, natural advantages.*

When Sir Isaac Newton beheld an apple fall from a tree, he beheld nothing more than thousands of his countrymen were witnessing almost every day. Why was it, that the apple, thus seen by him in common with such multitudes, was so differently improved by its respective beholders? Why did his fellow men unconcernedly behold the same phenomenon occurring perhaps day by day, without any other reflection than that an apple had fallen to the ground; while he, commencing with that simple fact, advanced link by link in a chain of inferences, resulting from the operation of cause and effect, until, with almost divine intuition, he could comprehend and demonstrate the motion of worlds? It was because Newton possessed a mind, naturally strong indeed, but greatly improved by education. It was this which enabled him to make the fall of an apple the commencement of a theory which astonished the world. Look at that farmer; why are his grounds so clean and well cultivated, compared with those of his fellow-husbandmen? Why are his fences good, and his barns full, and his trees thrifty? It is because he has obtained from books, or from experience, or from both, a fund of practical knowledge. The same truth holds good as well of collective bodies of men, as of particular individuals. Why does that little village, situated on one of the most barren and rocky tracts of land in New-England, exceed in neatness, and fertility, and every domestic comfort, the Cherokee town, situated perhaps in one of the richest and healthiest districts of Georgia? It is because the minds of the inhabitants of the one, are so superior to the minds of those

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who occupy the other. Education has created the difference. The christians, who dwell in the one, have used their present natural advantages, although comparatively inferior, to far better effect, than the savages who dwell in the other. And why is it, that you behold so marked a difference, as is often seen between two neighboring villages in the same State. Why is one neat, temperate, influential,—with no paupers supported by the parish, except such as are old and infirm, and therefore unable to support themselves; while the other is unadorned, unimproved, immoral, intemperate, without influence, and struggling with taxes to support its own poor? It is because information, moral and intellectual, is spread over the mass of population in the one, while ignorance, moral and intellectual, is brooding over the people of the other.

The country village in which education prevails, will display to you its effects, wherever you may tread within its precincts; just as we have already seen it to be the case, with a well informed, individual farmer. Every stream, every hillock, every rock within it, that is at all capable of any improvement, will be turned to some immediate and profitable use. Its inhabitants will feel it to be their duty, not only to man, but to God, to avail themselves of every natural advantage. Thus, go where you will, in places where christianity has blessed society by her hallowed presence, and education, which always walks hand in hand with her sister piety, has reared her schools and her seminaries of learning, and you shall see the barren waste literally becoming a fruitful field; the sails of commerce flapping in the breeze; the hand of industry laying diligent hold of every natural advantage within its reach. Wherever these inseparable companions bend their beautiful footsteps, flowers of industry spring up and flourish around them. The poor man's cottage assumes a new air of neatness; his children, once perhaps, ragged and filthy, are clothed and clean; the garden of the sluggard is tilled and flourishing; the cup of the intemperate is cast to the ground, and broken to atoms; the once poor, and unimproved, and uninviting village, becomes rich, and cultivated, and pleasant,—the abode of happiness, and peace, and plenty.

Education renders the inhabitants of a village *domestic*.

The mind of man is active; it must be constantly employed; and the consequence is, that it is ever searching after novelty. The educated man, seated by the fireside, and surrounded by a smiling and happy family, satiates this thirst for novelty, by receiving the new ideas continually presented to his mind by the

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book which he is reading, or the meditations which he is indulging; and when his heart requires to be soothed by the intercourse of social life, he finds it in the bosom of his family, or in occasional interviews with friends, who can appreciate the occupations in which he delights, and the scenes in which he loves to mingle. Seldom, if ever, do you find this to be the case with him who is ignorant. Occasionally, indeed, you may find an unlettered individual amid the mass of his fellow beings, who, from torpor of mind, or of body, or perhaps of both, desires to keep within the boundaries of his own abode, without making frequent excursions to the company of others. But as a general fact, ignorance still retains all the natural activity of mind, which we have just seen to be the attendant of knowledge. But ignorance can never satisfy this thirst for novelty, at the same streams. Ignorance cannot love to read; it is equally averse to meditation; nor does it love to remain long in the same circumstances, surrounded by the same objects, and the same persons. The mind thirsts, as we have seen, for novelty, and it will have it. The consequence is, that in an ignorant community, you witness but little of the comfort and pleasure of domestic life. In such a community, men love to gather themselves in public places, and to be away from home. There is not novelty enough there, to gratify the insatiable curiosity of the human mind, and nature forces them to be absent.

In a reading community, this is seldom, if ever, the case with individuals, and never with the general mass; for, to well informed minds, retirement, and meditation, and books present more pleasing variety; and with an ancient philosopher, they feel never less alone, than when alone.

It is easy to see, then, what a mighty difference must be made by education, upon the domestic habits of a country village. We have only to look at facts:—where are the social affections most cultivated?—Where are families most constantly found together around the fireside,—at home? Where is woman most exalted, and the wife most happy in the domestic attention of her husband, and the children most improved by constant and familiar intercourse with their parents? Who does not know, and who will not acknowledge, that it is in the well educated village? On the contrary:—where is it, that you witness the most frequent meetings for revelry and dissipation?—Where do you find the father of a family seldom at home, and the mother often sitting in loneliness, and the children often vagrants from their father's house?—Where are the evenings most commonly

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lost in idle conversation, if they are not spent in the haunts of intemperance and vice ?—Where, I ask, if it be not in a village where useful books are seldom read, and where solid learning is in little, or in no repute ?

DUTIES OF A TEACHER.

[From a View of the Livingston County High School, Geneseo, New-York.]

Let no man place himself in the chair of instruction, unless he is willing to submit to a life of unceasing labor and responsibility. Notwithstanding the honorable and useful nature of his employments, his path is encompassed with numerous difficulties. He must deal with dispositions as different as light and darkness; he must adapt himself to the peculiar moral and intellectual qualities of each individual under his care; he must become in a sense, 'all things to all men,' or his instructions will be ineffectual. Such a range of duty requires a cast of moral and intellectual character not often met with in the ordinary circles of society. No narrow attachment to system, no bigoted adherence to technical forms, no inveterate prejudices, no reverence for time-hallowed errors, no submissive obedience to opinions propped only by the authority of great names, ought to find a place in the mind of him who would discharge with happiness to himself, and advantage to others, the laborious and important office of training the minds of the young. Nothing but an earnest desire to disentangle truth from error, will enable him to address himself effectually to a variety of intellects. An entire willingness to follow the path of holy truth, wherever she may lead, a resolute perseverance to concentrate upon this grand object the scattered rays of light that beam from every source of knowledge, will alone fit him to meet successfully the different intellectual wants which he is required to understand. He must commune directly with mind; with mind not always in a highly cultivated condition, but often sunk in ignorance, and perverted by prejudice: he must not only guide the rapid course of awakened genius, but call forth the slumbering energies that lie concealed beneath apparent stupidity. How various then should be his modes of address! how accurate his knowledge of different motives on different characters! and, it

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may be added, how absurd would it be for him to cling with obstinacy to any system, however strong by authority and venerable by age. We look upon intellectual freedom, though the gift is a rare one indeed, as the best qualification of an instructor. We conceive it a matter of deep importance that he should yield his dearest, his most fondly cherished prejudices to the voice of reason; or rather, we believe it to be his duty to extricate himself, as far as possible, from their thraldom before he assumes the responsibilities of his station.

A man who expects entire freedom from prejudice, and universal correctness of reasoning in *any* community, expects too much from human nature. There will always be wrong and narrow views afloat, which must be tenderly yet manfully encountered. So far as a liberal and generous course of education prevails, just so far will these obstacles be happily removed. Scantiness of information and limited ideas of the nature and extent of human intellect, the perverted notions of the social duties, an overweening persuasion of the importance of some things, and an unjust depreciation of the value of others, have ever tainted the springs of public sentiment, and will long continue to nerve the arm of error against the course of improvement. Those whose views have never been enlarged by a course of intellectual discipline are unable to comprehend the utility of certain branches of knowledge, which may, notwithstanding, be highly important to develope and strengthen the mental energies, to give firmness to reason and maturity to judgment. But are the interests of education to be sacrificed because these men cannot comprehend them? Certainly not. The opposition that springs from such a source, and the frivolous objections that are raised by such feelings, must be answered mildly, yet with an unyielding adherence to the plain dictates of sense and reason. Even then, the enlightened instructer must not expect to escape the censures of ignorance and self-will. His motives will be impeached, his judgment assailed, and perhaps his character charged with the very faults it is his most earnest desire to correct. But if he has engaged in the cause with a proper feeling of its responsible duties, and a sincere purpose of discharging them justly and magnanimously, he may safely entrust his vindication to the cultivated minds of the few, and the increasing intelligence of the many.

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HINT TO PARENTS.

The early instruction imbibed from a parent's life, has the strongest influence in forming the future character. Before the mind is mature enough to think for itself, we look to those whom nature has constituted our guardians, to correct and sanction our opinions. In this way the parental authority gains a hold upon the mind of children, that never can be annihilated. And happy indeed would it be if the result were always the formation of a noble and manly character. Intelligent and well educated parents exert a glorious and beneficial power; but those who are darkened by ignorance, and chained by prejudice, transmit their intellectual qualities, as well as personal features, to their unfortunate descendants. When an instructer has to deal with the children of such parents, he has a double difficulty to encounter. He must meet the ignorance and obstinacy of the one, and give a right direction to the perverted powers of the other. And after he has laboured with all the assiduity of an almost self-sacrificing zeal, he must consider it an instance of rare felicity to escape a torrent of bitter invective. How many worthy instructers have had their peace assailed by the unjust reproaches of discontented parents? How many parents have seen cause of deep and hearty repentance that they ever lent a credulous ear to the complaints of boyish pettishness? Have you a son? Beware how you make the idle effusions of an irritated temper, the ground of serious accusation against his intellectual guide. As you value the consciousness of having discharged your duty, as you regard the future respectability of your child; as you would have him improve the precious hours of youth in gaining those acquisitions that are to make him a worthy and useful member of society; beware of giving your parental countenance to his frivolous complaints. Are you a mother?—As you wish your son to fulfil the bright hopes of maternal affection, as you wish him to become the boast and support of your life, the pride of your family, the ornament of society, beware of suffering your solicitude to betray you into unjust censures on the apparent severity of an instructer, whose duty leads him to apply a wholesome discipline to your darling child.—*Ib.*

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MONITORIAL INSTRUCTION.

[In our last number we had occasion to mention the great opposition manifested to the proposed plan for introducing the monitorial system into the grammar and writing schools of the city of Boston. From the Report which embodied the plan we made several extracts, relating more immediately to the change recommended, and presenting of course, a favourable view of the monitorial method. We expressed, it will also be recollected, our intention to lay before our readers a fair view of the objections made to this method; being desirous that its disadvantages as well as its excellences might be thoroughly understood, and that they might be foreseen, where teachers who had not the aid of previous experience in its use, were desirous of introducing it.

The following paragraphs are part of a very able and interesting article originally inserted in the Boston Advertiser.]

The report of the sub-committee, proposing to introduce the monitorial system into our public schools, seems to have attracted general attention, and various communications upon the subject have appeared in the newspapers, all of which, we believe, without exception, have been opposed to the alteration. For arguments in its favour, we must therefore look to the report itself.

It seems that the sub-committee of the schools were directed 'to consider the subject of the high school for girls, whether it shall be continued, whether girls can be permitted to remain throughout the year at the grammar schools, or their time of continuance advantageously extended.' Under this authority, the committee have taken it upon themselves to make a report, proposing an entire revolution in our whole system of school instruction—a system, which has stood the test of experience—which has gradually accommodated itself to the varying circumstances of the community, incorporating in itself improvements as they became necessary, and viewed as a whole, exhibiting, probably, the most complete course of instruction at the public expense, which can be found in any part of the world.

The school committee, however, did not accept the report of the sub-committee, but passed a vote, recommending the introduction of the new system into two of our grammar schools, as an experiment. An attempt has been made to prevail on the committee of the primary schools, to recommend its introduction into the schools under their care; but, as we understand, without effect, a large majority of that body, being utterly opposed to it. A committee of the common council have reported in favour of an appropriation, to defray the expense of the proposed change in the two grammar schools above mentioned. We hope this appropriation will not be made, and that in no form whatever, will the introduction of the monitorial system into our public schools, be countenanced by the city authorities. It is not the evil consequent upon a mere experiment in one or two schools, that we dread, but, it is the doing any thing, which will tend, in any way, to facilitate the general introduction of the system. Under peculiar circumstances it might appear, that great improvement had been made in a given instance, owing to the superior qualifications of the master, the zeal and attention of committees, the excitement of novelty, &c.,

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but, on applying the system to the whole city, permanently, a very different result would be obtained. Besides, a great deal of what appeared to be instruction, would not be real, or useful; the knowledge would be mechanically acquired, and partially understood,—the great end of instruction, the strengthening and invigorating of the mind, and the improvement of all the faculties, would not be attained. But there is a charm in novelty, and display—a disposition to believe in new theories of instruction, and sometimes an actual improvement in consequence of great excitement, beyond what could have been imagined. We have had masters here, who proposed to teach French in a fortnight; and scholars, who appeared to have learned it in this short time. We have also had grammar taught by machinery—writing, by particular positions of the hand and arm,—Arithmetic, without the use of figures, and, so on, through all the different branches of knowledge and science. But, after all, every one must admit, that all valuable knowledge is gradually, and laboriously acquired; the effect of long continued attention, application, and habit. The late high school for girls is referred to, as an illustration of the success of this system. To this we reply, that the success of this school lay in the teacher, and in the circumstance of his school being a selection of the best scholars in the city; and, this was not a monitorial school, in the general acceptation of the term. The teacher of this school heard all, or nearly all the lessons himself,—he did not trust to the monitors—he was himself the all in all; and what does he now do? with a private school, and only eighty scholars, he has three able teachers to assist him. Is this monitorial, upon the plan of the committee? In a limited sense, every school is monitorial; scholars are selected to give occasional aid; monitors are appointed for certain purposes; and this is found to be useful, both to the scholars and the masters. But, then, this extends no further than the *direct personal supervision* of the instructer can reach—there it stops. So it has always been, and it is most certain, that if the evils had not been found greater than the advantages, the system would long ago have been extended. We proceed briefly to notice some parts of the report of the sub-committee. They speak of the advantages of the monitorial system, as 'no longer hypothetical.' 'Its unexampled success, both in Europe and America, and its accordance with the known constitution of the human mind, and the principles of human action, is such as to render its superiority unquestionable.' Having settled this point to their satisfaction, by assuming all their facts, the committee proceed to remark, that the only subjects necessary to be discussed, are, 'the obstacles which prevent its complete introduction immediately.' Here, then, in about twenty lines, is contained all the information the committee have afforded us, as to the advantages of this system, which in the report, is said to simplify and facilitate instruction,—to 'keep the attention awake—disposing the mind to industry—to easy subordination,—to love of order, and producing effects highly beneficial on the character, habits, and intelligence of our youth.' In proof of this, we are referred to the success of the schools in New-York, and this city, and also generally, in different parts of Europe; and its superior cheapness is often mentioned. And here, it appears to us, mistakes in point of fact, exist in that part of the report, which relates to the monitorial system. How has it succeeded in Europe? It has succeeded only in those cases, where the object was to confer a very limited degree of instruction, at the least possible expense, to those entirely ignorant; and is only adopted under any other circumstances, with great limitations. It will be found on examination, to be principally in use in the most unenlightened and uneducated parts of Europe, as a means of giving a degree of knowledge, preferable only to total ignorance. In New-York, there are about 12000 children who attend no school whatever. It is not strange, then, that any thing which has the appearance of instruction, should there be considered as success. But, in a late address of the Trustees of the School Society of New-York, among whom are some of the first men in the state,—the success of these schools is not once alluded to; on the contrary, the state of their public schools is greatly lamented, and the present system of the schools in Boston, is held up for imitation, as being superior to any thing of the

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kind in the country; and it is worthy of remark, that although in the address of the same trustees in 1826, much is said of the monitorial part of their system, yet, in the address above alluded to, they are wholly silent on the subject. We have also seen letters lamenting the condition of their schools, and have conversed with gentlemen who have visited the New-York monitorial schools, so highly praised by the sub-committee, who speak of them, and of the best schools in that city on the monitorial plan, as exhibiting results which would here be considered a total failure. But, even in these instances, and with this low degree of attainment, assistant instructers have been found necessary, and are increasing in number in the New-York schools;—and we are informed that in the High School, (Dr Griscom's,) there is a teacher to every 55 boys.

[The writer of the above article, we are sorry to observe, does not seem well acquainted either with the system of mutual instruction, or with the actual state of those schools, even in Boston, in which it has been introduced. That this is the case will appear from a view of the following facts:

There is an entire mistake in regard to the state of the primary schools. The monitorial plan is actually adopted in a great number of them: the further introduction of it is,—according to a Report on this subject, unanimously accepted,—to proceed as fast as circumstances will authorize it.* A more abrupt introduction of the new method was, indeed, objected to, but under peculiar and unfavourable circumstances, not exactly connected with the actual merits of the question.

Several other misstatements are also worth adverting to; one of which is, that the monitorial method is always and necessarily superficial. This allegation is not more true of the new mode of teaching than it is of the old. By some of the most eminent teachers in Europe the system of mutual instruction is preferred for its efficiency. It is found an excellent instrument; and if, in some instances, it is superficially used, the blame lies with the agent, and not with the means.

Another striking mistake of the writer of the article transcribed, is, that the Boston High School for Girls was not a monitorial school, in the general acceptation of the term. The teacher himself, then, must have been deceived; so must the school committee, and the great number of visitants from other places, who came to this city, in not a few instances, for the very purpose of seeing what a good monitorial school is. If its excellence as a school made it not a monitorial school in the common acceptation of the term, the merits of every very good school on the common plan might, with equal force, be pleaded as a reason for not ranking it with schools of that description.

* See Journal of Education No. 27, p. 134—144.

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The teacher of the high school for girls was most assiduously attentive to his duties. He proved himself a competent instructer in every sense of the word. His scholars, too, were admirably prepared to receive the benefits of any good system of instruction. They had been well grounded in their elementary education; and they were themselves the best scholars, generally, of their respective schools. But if the high school for girls was not properly a monitorial school, then there is no such thing in existence in America or in Europe. And we may inquire, in passing, whether, excellent as the teacher and the scholars confessedly were, any system which was merely mechanical or superficial could have produced the results obtained in that school. The truth, we believe, will be found to be, that that seminary was a fair specimen of a *good* monitorial school.

The author of the article quoted, has fallen into another mistake regarding the extent of the system. He considers it as confined, in Europe, to lower schools, and to a few places. Nothing could be more incorrect. In France, in Scotland, and in England, as well as in other countries, it has been applied, in numerous instances, with great success, to the higher branches of education. The normal and model schools of the first named of these countries—the high school of Edinburgh, so well known as conducted on the system of monitorial teaching, and the logic class, and others of the college of Glasgow, in which the system of mutual instruction was put to the test of nearly half a century—the Hazelwood school, and several others of the higher order of seminaries in England, have long ago put beyond doubt the adaptation of the monitorial plan to extensive use in the more advanced stages of instruction. With regard to the slighting manner in which the writer speaks of the public school system of New-York, it is unnecessary for us to make a single remark. These schools are open to inspection; and, if we are not greatly deceived, will speak well for themselves. The writer evidently depends on hearsay, and not his personal observation. He falls, too, into another error in speaking of the arrangements for public instruction, and the opinion of the Trustees of the School Society respecting these. It is not the *method of teaching* in Boston that is held up to admiration by those gentlemen,—but the system of arrangements for public instruction.

On the question of the comparative merits of the public schools of New-York we cannot speak from personal observation. But we may advert for a moment to a single fact. In

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Boston, the citizens enjoy the benefit of a system matured by many years' experience, and therefore in all probability rendered practically good, whether theoretically so or not—the teachers, too, are commonly men of college education, and of excellent qualifications in other respects, and handsomely supported; they are therefore permanent in their functions; besides all which, they have the full benefit of the principle of division of labour, a great security for excellence, in all cases where it is attainable.

If, under all these advantages, the actual instruction of the public schools of Boston should excel that of those of New-York, it would be nothing wonderful; nor does all this go a single step to prove that the system or method of teaching adopted in New-York may not be vastly preferable to that adopted in Boston. The high mental character of any body of men, not less than of any individual, may work out, by laborious skill and energy, what, perhaps, on a better plan, might have been achieved with less waste of time and exertion.

Our present limits, however, will not permit us to extend our remarks; and we shall therefore resume this article in our next number.]

REVIEW.

First Principles of English Spelling and Reading, by Caleb H. Snow, M. D. Boston. James Loring. 1828. pp. 72; stereotype.

[Concluded.]

The dissyllables are divided into fifteen lessons, each forming about enough for one day's study. The first division, which constitutes the *tenth lesson*, consists of dissyllables having two letters in each syllable. The next lesson gives the words having two letters in the first and three in the last, and so onward, through all the dissyllables, it has been a rule to make the number of letters in the component syllables the guide respecting the lesson in which it should be inserted. This part of the plan of the *First Principles* it is thought will be found peculiarly convenient. The child will always be able to count before he tries to spell, (at least, he ought to be able to count ten,) and this plan is calculated to let him perceive his error readily after he has committed it, by telling him how many letters he used more or less than the proper number; and in many instances, we think, the observing learner will calculate, before he utters his spelling, so as to give the requisite number of letters to his syllables. A very little instruction from the teacher will soon let the learner into this part of the plan; and if he understands the manner in which any thing is done, the child, like the man, feels himself more truly master of it.

The 25th, 26th, and 27th lessons exhibit the verbal terminations, plurals, and and degrees of comparison. This is something novel in a spelling-book, but not

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the less useful. It has the double advantage of showing how words are formed from other words, and of rendering familiar some of the more common parts of grammar. The lessons contain examples of most of the changes which the various terminations occasion or require, and this part of orthography truly appears to be of no less importance, for constant use, than that of the primitive form of words.

We now come to the lessons of trisyllables. In these the author has classed the words with reference to some obvious distinctions which it is not necessray to particularize. Where the opportunity offers, the composition of a word is sometimes shown by the manner in which it is divided; thus *glutton-ous*, *burden-some*, *dis-armed*, &c. If we have not mistaken the proper object of spelling-books, it is the formation of words correctly for letters, that is, spelling. And we believe that a child thould be early taught to see that most of our hard words (as he learns to call them) are formed from very easy words, which he well knows how to spell. On this principle the *30th lesson* is made up of nouns ending in *er* and *or*, and their formation is shown by suffering the primitive word to stand entire, with the termination by itself; thus we have *labour-er*, *partake-r*, &c. The idea of one letter standing alone to represent a syllable may be appalling, but whoever tries to spell a word in this manner will find no more difficulty than every one meets in the thousand other anomalies to which every new elementary books adds at least one. The pupil in grammar is taught that adjectives are varied by adding *r* or *er*, and verbs by adding *d* or *ed*: why should not the student of the art of spelling be taught the same as early as he may?

The seven lessons which follow contain the words terminating in *art*, *ent*, *ance*, and *ence*; words in *ful* and *less*; in *ness*; adverbs in *ly*; words in *y short*; polysyllables in *able* and *ible*; words in *sion* and *tion*. The symplicity of this arrangement recommends it in theory, and we think that in practice it will be found quite serviceable. Subsequent lessons present the longer miscellaneous words, the compound words, and the forty-first lesson comprises such as are peculiarly irregular, or had not found a place in their appropriate tables.

The *forty-second lesson* brings us to the proper names, which have been classified with much pains, in such a way as to lead to the correct orthography and pronunciation. Each class commences with a leading word, whose pronunciation is always familiar, and under it arranged all those names in which the accented syllable bears the same vowel sound: and the accented syllables are moreover made to range under each other in such a way as to leave no doubt upon the subject. The spelling lessons are concluded with a table of the names of the books of the Old and New Testaments, which appeared peculiarly appropriate in a school book designed for the purposes of this. The number of adults who can name those books in order, would not have been so few, if we had had such a table in our Childhood's Companion.

For the accommodation of beginners it seems necessary to add a series of *Reading Lessons*. These are all composed of scripture phrases or stories adapted to the infant mind: they begin with the easiest readings of monosyllables, and are so arranged as to call into exercise the memory and judgment, by progressively furnishing examples of the most difficult spellings and pronunciation. To do this, and at the same time to make a lasting moral impression on the child's mind, without any reference whatever to sectarian sentiments, is the sole object of this part of the book. How well this is effected the good sense of the public must determine.

The tables of *Abbreviations*, of *Numbers*, of *Months* and *Days*, of *Similar Sounding Words*, of *Stops* and *Marks*, will be found to differ somewhat from those in other books, of the kind, and the difference is believed to be an *improvement*; by which term in matters of education we mean *an alteration calculated to render the learner's progress more easy while it is also made more certain*. This seems to be the author's only object in devoting his time to this

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compilation; and the object of this lengthened exposé is to call the attention of readers, interested in directing the first steps of childhood up the hill of knowledge, to the facilities it offers for that purpose.

INTELLIGENCE.

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB IN NEW-YORK.

[The interesting intelligence which follows is extracted from the 'Report of the Secretary of State' and (Superintendent of Common Schools) 'in relation to the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb in the city of New-York.' The pamphlet from which these extracts are made contains much useful and pleasing information on the general subject of instruction, as applied to the class of pupils mentioned. At present, we must restrict ourselves to a few facts connected with the establishment of the institution referred to in the Report. But we shall take the earliest opportunity of laying before our readers the comparative views given of the arrangement and instruction of seminaries for the deaf and dumb in other parts of the United States.]

State of New-York, Secretary's Office. *Albany, April* 12, 1828. The Secretary of State respectfully submits to the legislature, the annual report required of him by 'An act to provide for the building an asylum for the deaf and dumb in the city of New-York,' passed March 23d, 1827.

The first section of this act requires that 'the price of the ground to be purchased, and the plan of the buildings to be erected, shall be submitted to the Superintendent of Common Schools, and be by him approved, before the said sum of money ($10,000) shall be drawn from the treasury.' In June last, the plan of the buildings, and a lease from the corporation of the city of New-York, of a lot on which they were to be erected, were presented for approval. Impressed with the belief that a public institution ought to be placed on permanent ground, and guarded against future embarassments, the Superintendent communicated to the directors some objections to placing the buildings on leased land; after which the directors made a second application to the corporation of New-York; which body, with its characteristic liberality, gave the fee of one acre of land to the institution, on which the buildings are to be erected. And there is reason to hope, from the representations of Dr Akerly, that when the buildings are completed, the institution will not be indebted for any part thereof. The plan, and the progress which has been made in the erection of the asylum buildings, are presented in the annual report of the directors, made to the legislature in February last.

The second section of the act referred to, declares 'that it shall be the duty of the Superintendent of Common Schools, from time to time, to inquire into the expenditures of the said institution, and the system of instruction pursued therein; to visit and inspect the schools and the lodgings of the pupils; to ascertain by a comparison with other similar institutions, whether any improvements can be made, and for that purpose, to appoint such and so many persons as he shall from time to time deem necessary, visitors of the said schools; to suggest to the directors, and to the legislature, such improvements as he shall deem expedient; and to report annually to the legislature on all the matters aforesaid, and particularly the condition of the schools, the improvement of the pupils, and their treatment in respect to their board and lodging.'

In the month of October last, the Superintendent visited the New-York institution for the instruction of the deaf and dumb. The school at present is kept in two rooms in the upper story of the buildings, belonging to the corpo-

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ration, in the rear of the City Hall; and for these rooms, insufficient as they are, the school has been indebted from its commencement to the liberality of the city authorities, who have added thereto an annual appropriation of 400 dollars.

The female pupils, 28 in number, board and lodge in the family of Dr Akerly, the secretary; and the males, 35 in number, with Mr Loofborrow, the principal teacher. At each boarding-house the pupils have a room, where they assemble after school hours, for the purpose of studying their lessons, and receiving instruction; and all the arrangements appear to be made with a view of preserving a parental supervision over the scholars, during the hours when they are not occupied at the school. The pupils are comfortably lodged; and so far as an opportunity was presented for judging, there is reason to be satisfied with their board.

NOTICES.

The New-England Farmers' and Mechanics' Journal. Conducted by E. Holmes, M. D., Professor of Chemistry, Natural History, and Agriculture, in Gardiner Lyceum. Vol. I. Nos. 2 and 3 —February and March, 1828. Gardiner, Me. P. Sheldon.

To some of our readers we may seem out of place in taking notice of this publication. But we mention this periodical with a deep conviction that extensive and effectual measures for the general improvement of education can never be taken, until a spirit of improvement and a disposition for information become prevalent in the community, with regard to the progress of the useful arts and sciences. This we conceive is true emphatically in respect of common education. Parents will not feel disposed to maintain good instruction, and pay for well qualified teachers and improved school-books, unless they themselves are addicted to reading and take an interest in mental improvement.

We shall have occasion in our next to resume this subject, in some of its more practical details. In the meantime we would recommend the Journal we have mentioned to all our readers who are desirous that both their leisure and their active hours should be well occupied. To many it may prove peculiarly serviceable in their daily pursuits; and to all it will furnish much useful and agreeable information.

An English Parsing Table. By A. Curtis, Principal of a Literary Seminary for Young Ladies, Richmond, Virginia.

Articles of this description are valuable aids in the instruction of young scholars, who should be introduced to the study of grammar practically rather than theoretically. The higher principles of grammar should, we think, always be deferred till a later stage of education than we have yet observed to be customary.

Of the table under notice we entertain a very favourable opinion, and think that the chief room for improvement, in a new edition, would be the addition of *paradigms* of inflection. These would render it a much more useful manual than most of our current abridgments of grammar.

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AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. VI. JUNE, 1828. Vol. III.

UNIVERSITY OF PARIS.

[The following miscellaneous particulars bring down the more interesting part of Johnston's history to the close of the era preceding the French Revolution.]

Early state of the Medical Profession in France.

For a considerable period, and more particularly about the beginning of the fourteenth century, much scandal had been occasioned, not only in the university, but in the city of Paris, by the contentions in which the different branches of the medical profession were embroiled amongst themselves, about their mutual privileges. In early periods of history, the professions of physician and surgeon were synonymous, or rather they were confounded together; but as the medical science rose in importance, physicians refused to practise the manual part of their art, and in consequence a new class sprung up, totally unconnected with the university, who practised in that department alone, and who were named surgeons. But so ignorant and ill educated were these persons, and so unfit for their profession, that Philip the Fair, to prevent the art from falling altogether to ruin, issued an *ordonnance*, commanding, under severe penalties, all who wished to practise surgery, to take a license from the surgeon attached to his own person at the *chatelet*, and an oath before the *prevot*. At this period various circumstances prove that the surgeons were totally unconnected with the university; and the fact, that women were admitted into their number, is alone sufficient to establish this. In 1356 their connexion with the university for the first time appears, from the surgeons being

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then ordered, along with the booksellers, binders, and other inferior members or rather dependants, to guard the gates of Paris upon some occasion of danger. While this shews their connexion with the university, it also shews the low degree of estimation in which they were held. The precise period at which they were admitted to the rights of scholarity it is difficult to determine, some writers making it as early as 1390, others not till 1436. It is certain, however, that in the latter year, on the 13th of March, there was convened a meeting of the university, in which, after some debate, it was agreed to admit the surgeons to the full enjoyment of the rights and immunities possessed by that body, provided they attended the courses of lectures given by the professors of medicine.

This qualification could not but be exceedingly disagreeable to the surgeons, who endeavoured as far as possible to evade it; but the physicians were by no means inclined to lose the hold they had thus obtained over them, and passed a law refusing to give an attestation to any surgeon who had not properly inscribed himself in their register.

As might well be supposed, there existed no great feeling of cordiality between the two bodies. The surgeons were offended at the implied inferiority of their profession, and the physicians, anxious to maintain their influence undiminished, used every means to keep them under. A fair opportunity was not long of presenting itself. In Paris, as in most towns, there were two orders of persons practising surgery, the surgeons properly so called, or of the long robe, and the surgeon-barbers. Between them there existed constant causes of dispute; and the latter, towards the close of the fifteenth century, had gained the superiority as much in the practice as in the knowledge of their profession. With less pretensions than the surgeons of the long robe, they yielded in all points to the physicians, who at last, in the year 1506, as a means of annoyance to the surgeons, formally took them under their protection, but under the implied condition, that they were to be subservient to them in all points, and have no professional meeting with any one who had not been licensed by the *faculty*. The surgeons of the long robe and the surgeon-barbers remained distinct bodies and rivals for a long period: they united in 1656; but in 1743 the king did entirely away with the latter, and ordered that from that time all persons practising surgery should be lettered.*

* Crevier, V. 48, et seq. Pasquier, Richesses de la France, IX. 30.

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Origin of the Order of Jesuits.

The attention of the school of Paris, as well as that of all Europe, was now turned upon an order, whose influence for a time over the minds of men was greater than any other religious body ever possessed. This was the formidable order of Jesuits, which, it may be said, took its commencement in the university, though always regarded by it with the utmost jealousy and dislike. Several churchmen, who had been educated at this school, at the head of whom were Ignace de Loyola and St Francis Xavier, having founded a society, applied to the Pope for a bull, which was granted, constituting them into a body, under the title of the Society of Jesus. This society, though assisted by all the influence of the court of Rome, did not at once obtain a footing in Paris. The powerful aid and protection, however, of Cardinal de Lorraine, and the zeal which its members shewed in putting down the new sect of the Huguenots, by degrees brought it into notice, and it was not long in manifesting its intentions, and the dangerous nature of its doctines. As might be supposed, the first endeavours of the Jesuits were directed towards the university. Having established colleges, and having fixed themselves in the Sorbonne, under the direction of the Cardinal de Lorraine, they commenced giving lessons. The permission to do this, from the rooted dislike which the university always had to teachers belonging to religious orders, would not have been easily granted, had they not found a friend in the Rector, who had formerly been a Bachelor of the Sorbonne, and who gave them the right of teaching secretly, and without the concurrence of the heads of the school.

On an appointed day the Jesuits opened their colleges, with this inscription over the gate of each,—*College of the Society of Jesus*. The university now opposed them violently, and a new Rector passed a law forbidding them to teach publicly. The Jesuits here shewed the true features of their character; cunning, deceit, and prevarication formed their weapons; and, when they were questioned as to the nature of their tenets and principles, their answers were framed in so indirect a manner as to give no satisfaction. The university, therefore, continuing to refuse them admission, they applied to the parliament; from which, after long debates on both sides, they obtained some slight advantage, but by no means all to which they aspired.

After the massacre of St Bartholomew the Jesuits redoubled their endeavours to be received into the body of the university; and, in 1572, it was determined by the latter neither to reject nor receive, but merely to tolerate them. Again, in 1573, it passed a

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resolution not to receive, license, or grant a degree of master to any one who had studied under the Jesuits; and still farther, in 1574, the Faculty of Arts excluded scholars of Jesuits from all academical privileges.*

The kingdom of France was now distracted by factions and parties; the inhabitants were divided between the Leaguers and Huguenots; and outrages, civil wars, and bloodshed overwhelmed this devoted country. It was not to be expected that the university could remain altogether untainted by the doctrines of the day, or, when the whole kingdom was a prey to to disorder, that it alone could be undisturbed and uncorrupted. In fact, a complete disorganization took place. Instruction was little, if at all, attended to; the minds of men were agitated by passions that left no room for the study of literature. Lecturing was at an end, and the colleges, instead of being filled with students, were occupied by armed men. This continued till the success of Henry enabled him to enter Paris in triumph, when the university of Paris once more resumed its proper position; and one of its first acts was to demand the expulsion of the Jesuits, who, along with the Capucines, refused obstinately to acknowledge the lawful sovereign. The affair of Chatel† at last sealed their doom; and, whilst he was punished in the manner his crime deserved, the Jesuits were ordered, as corrupters of youth, disturbers of the public repose, and enemies of the king and state, within the space of three days, to leave Paris, and within fifteen days to quit the realm, under pain, if found in France after that period, of being punished as guilty of *Leze Majestè*. The same *arret* also forbade all subjects of the king, under a similar penalty, to send scholars to the colleges of the society beyond the limits of the realm.

University Degrees.

It is a matter of very considerable difficulty to determine the precise epoch when the university first possessed the right of conferring degrees upon its members. The title of licentiate is met with very early, and there existed regulations in the eleventh and twelfth centuries concerning it, in which it is forbidden that

* Crevier, VI 291.

† When Henry the Fourth, in his palace of the Louvre, was in the act of stooping to embrace a nobleman who had just been introduced to him, he received a blow with a knife, which wounded him in the lip. The assassin was instantly seized, and turned out to be one John Chatel, a pupil of the Jesuits, whose doctrines had incited him to the deed.

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those who confer it should take any fees. The terms of doctor and master also occur very early in the history of the university; and it is more than likely that they were conferred merely as titles of honour, without the form of examination, upon such teachers or persons as distinguished themselves in any particular manner. Nothing approaching in character to the academic honours of the present day seems to have existed till the beginning of the thirteenth century, when, by a letter of Robert de Courçon, dated 1215, it is ordered, that every person wishing to profess the fine arts should study for the space of six years, and be examined according to a form determined by the school and chancellor jointly, and then he should further study for two years; probably before he had the right of demanding the license.* The same regulations were applicable to theology. Medicine appears to have been the science in which degrees were longest of being given; but it soon followed the example of the others. The term bachelor is mentioned for the first time in a bull of Pope Gregory IX. in 1231. This pope ordered, that promotions to academic honours should be made upon a full and proper examination before qualified persons. An after statute of the university itself prescribed an oath to be administered, both to the examinator and candidates, in which it was expressly forbidden to take or give any money, or examine above a certain number of candidates each month.†

The three titles were those of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor, and it would appear, that they were not always conferred by the same authority; thus the degrees of bachelor and licentiate seem to been conferred by the chancellor, and that of doctor by the faculty to which the aspirant belonged. It is evident, that while the higher faculties conferred the title of doctor, their bachelor belonged to the nations, or faculty of arts.

When the four faculties of theology, law, medicine, and arts, became more distinct and more defined, the manner of conferring academic honours was placed on a more regular footing; certain courses of examination were followed out more strictly, and certain fees were taken and given; but it was some time before the faculties could agree among themselves as to the extent of their respective rights; and it was not determined till towards the fifteenth century that each had the right to grant its own honours, to reject those who, after examination, were not found

* Crevier, VII. 143. † Meiners, I. 231.

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qualified, and to recommend to the chancellor, those he might license.

In the early period of the history of the Parisian school, there does not seem to have existed any fixed inscription or matriculation fee : certain small sums were paid by students upon entering the university, and by professors on taking their chairs ; but it is to the period of cardinal de Touteville's reform that we must refer the first rules laid down upon a fixed basis respecting university dues. After 1456, every person who entered his name in the university books was obliged to pay the sum of twenty four sous to the rector elect. With regard to the fees to be paid upon receiving a degree of bachelor, licentiate, or doctor, there existed much confusion and much abuse. The cardinal fixed the cost of a license of the faculty of canon law at fourteen gold crowns, and of a bachelor at seven. About the same time the course of study necessary for becoming bachelor of arts was fixed at three years and a half ; after which it was requisite to study natural philosophy and mathematics, attend the disputations of the masters, and support two theses before obtaining the license. After the examinations, the candidates were conducted by the rector to the chancellor, who blessed and crowned them. Having obtained the license, three and a half years' study was necessary before receiving the *Bonnet* or *Placet* ; after which the aspirant might supplicate *pro regentia et scholis*, or for the first vacant situation, to commence his career of teaching.

In 1460, the German nation made some laws respecting promotions to the dignity of bachelor or master of arts ; it fixed the fee of an examinator at two sous, and permitted the admission of such as had studied in other schools, provided they were schools of some celebrity ; but two years' study they deemed, in this case equivalent to only one at Paris.* In 1562, on account of the abuses that existed in respect to fees and honoraries, a species of reform was attempted. The fees of the faculty of law were allowed to remain at twenty eight crowns, as fixed in 1534 ; the others were altered ; those for master of arts were fixed at fifty six livres, twelve sous ; those of doctor of medicine at eight hundred and eighty one livres, five sous ; and those of doctor in theology at one thousand and two livres. About the same time also an important improvement was made in the study of medicine, the students being obliged to follow out the actual practice of the art under the eyes of the professors.

* Duboullai, V. 646.

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Notwithstanding all the regulations made respecting fees, there still continued to exist much abuse and much bribery. Students were often glad to resort to improper means of advancement, and the servants of the university were not always above corruption. The parliament endeavoured to remedy the evil, but not with the desired or looked for success, and it went on increasing till the reform of 1598, when it it was in some measure amended. At this reform also several important regulations were made; among others, the title of bachelor of theology was not to be conferred till the candidate had studied five years, and was thirty years of age; in the eighteenth century these were reduced to three years' study, and twenty-one years of age.

In the faculty of law the necessity of celibacy was dispensed with; in the faculty of medicine this had already been done as regarded doctors, but not as regarded bachelors. It was now done away with altogether.

Brief summary of the History of the University from its commencement to 1792.

It has already been remarked, that there exists much uncertainty as to the antiquity of the different component parts of the great body of the university of Paris. Crevier, going as much as possible on facts, and putting aside all vague conjectures, gives the following summary, as being pretty near the truth. The university of Paris, as a school, goes back as far as the age of Charlemagne; as a company it existed in 1169. Its head or rector is named in a diploma of Philip Augustus in 1200; the procurators of the nations, in 1299; the faculty of theology existed as a separate body in 1267; the faculties of canon law and medicine in 1281, the rights of the chancellor of Notre Dame were exercised in 1169. The degrees of bachelor and licentiate are clearly mentioned in the statute of Robert de Courçon, in 1215; and the term bachelor is distinctly expressed in pope Gregory's bull, in 1231.*

To give an account of the various changes and partial reforms that took place in the university of Paris during the greatest part of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, would be to extend the present narrative to too great a length, without presenting at the same time a proportional degree of interest; abuses crept in, and, in the general corruption of the age, the university, like other institutions, suffered. At its final and total destruction, in

* Crevier, VII. 162.

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1792, its composition was in nature very slightly different from what it originally had been, and the following summary of its component parts, as given by Crevier, offers an excellent idea of this composition.

The university of Paris consists of seven companies :—

1. The Faculty of Theology, presided over by the oldest of its secular Doctors, under the title of dean.
2. The Faculty of Law, originally established for Canon Law alone, but authorized by an *ordonnance* of 1679, to teach also Civil Law; presided over by a Dean, chosen from the Professors annually, and according to standing.
3. The Faculty of Medicine, presided over by a Dean, eligible every two years.
4. The nation of France.
5. The nation of Picardy.
6. The nation of Normandy.
7. The nation of Germany, formerly of England. Each of these nations presided over by its Procurator, who is elected annually: the four together form the Faculty of Arts, although they are distinct companies, each having a vote in the general affairs of the University.

A rector, chosen from the body of the faculty of arts, is head of the whole university, and the faculty of arts more particularly.

Three principal and perpetual officers.

Syndic,
Greffier,
Receiver,—all three officers of the University, and chosen from the Faculty of Arts.

THE UNITED STATES MILITARY ACADEMY AT WEST POINT, NEW-YORK.

[In a former number of the Journal (April, 1827) our readers were presented with a view of the above mentioned institution, as it appeared, on examination, to the Board of Visitors for June, 1826. The following account derives a part of its interest from its furnishing the impressions produced on the mind of an intelligent student of the seminary, reviewing his progress after the lapse of several years. The practical improvements suggested at the close of this article, will no doubt commend themselves to the approbation of every reader who takes an interest in the progress of instruction in any of its departments.

Among the expedients adopted by the instructers at West Point, emulation, it will be observed, is freely employed. In

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any other kind of seminary we should question the utility of a recourse to this principle; but, in a military school, we are not unwilling to admit that its influence may be good, and especially if managed with a prudent caution, as seems to be the case in the instance before us.

The point to which, at present, we feel chiefly desirous of attracting the attention of our readers, is the efficiency imparted to instruction by the arrangements adopted in the national school. The minds of the students seem to be called to high and constant action,—one of the best possible preparations for the duties of life in any profession. It is, we fear, too often true, that the energy of the mind is impaired by the influence of low standards of exertion, and that the days of early life, even at literary institutions, are sometimes so spent as to entail a lifeless feebleness on the whole mental character. In addition to the peculiar feature just mentioned of the system pursued at West Point, many others of nearly equal value will offer themselves on a perusal of the following article, which we think will be found both instructive and interesting to general readers as well as to teachers.]

The Military Academy, as the only national school in our country, has, within a few years, attracted general attention; and as there has never been, but in one instance, any detailed account of it, made public, the following sketch of the system of instruction and the mode of discipline pursued at this institution is thought to be due to the cause of education. The methods of discipline and instruction, which have raised this academy to its present standing, may contribute something to the advance of improvement in other seminaries.

The military academy was instituted by an act of congress, passed in 1802, at which time, it was contemplated only for the education of ten young men, yearly, for the engineer corps; but by gradual augmentation since, it has risen to its present extent and usefulness; the government being still nominally under the control of the head of this corps. The present object of the military academy, is to supply the army with properly educated officers.

During the stay of the students at the school, they have the title of *cadets*. After their education is finished each one that chooses, receives a commission in the army; those most eminent for talents and assiduity are placed in the most distinguished corps, (engineers,) those next in merit, in the artilley, and the

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remainder in the infantry ; the number in each being regulated by the wants of the public service.

The whole corps of cadets is divided into four classes, corresponding to the number of years required to complete the whole course of studies, viz. 4th class, (freshmen.) 3d class, (sophomores.) 2d class, (juniors.) 1st class, (seniors.)

The appointments to the military academy are made by the Secretary of War, on written application and recommendations. No person is admitted who has any physical or mental infirmity, which would render him unfit to perform military duty. Each candidate should be above fourteen, and less than twenty one years of age ; should be well versed in the ground rules of arithmetic, together with decimal and vulgar fractions ; be able to read and spell correctly, and to write a fair hand.

Each cadet receives from the government sixteen dollars per month and two rations a day, which is equivalent to three hundred and thirty eight dollars a year ; and as the students are not allowed to receive money from their parents or guardians, all their expenses are to be defrayed from this sum, viz. commons, clothes, books, instruments, stationary, and all other necessary expenses ; fuel is furnished free of expense to the cadets ; and it has been proved by long experience, that this sum is amply sufficient for all purposes needful and lawful.

According to the spirit of the several acts establishing and improving this academy, the sons of such persons as have died in the public service, or have been slain in battle, should have the preference over all others for admission into the academy. At the present time, but one son of the same family can be admitted.

The location of the military academy is most happy, and is not surpassed by that of any other seminary in our country. The scenery around is grand and picturesque. The buildings of the school are situated upon a level and beautiful plain, about two hundred feet above the Hudson river, containing about fifty acres ; they are arranged upon the three sides of a paralellogram, the open side being to the north. The east side is occupied by a large barrack ; the south side by another large barrack, chapel, commons, and offices ; the west side is occcupied by the superintendent's and professors' houses ; the whole built of stone and brick in a very permanent manner, and in a style of architecture suited to the objects around, and proper for the purposes intended.

The government of the school is administered by a superintendent, a commandant, and a number of subaltern officers from

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the line of the army. The superintendent is the supreme executive, and directs the execution of all laws, regulations, and orders, both as respects discipline and instruction; to him all reports are made. The commandant more immediately superintends the military duties and discipline of the school. The different subaltern officers under him, reside within the barracks with the cadets, and are charged with the immediate supervision of their conduct, more particularly to see that every cadet is within his own quarters and engaged in his appropriate duties.

All derelictions from duty within or without their quarters are registered, from which the conduct of each member of the academy, is determined at his last examination. These delinquencies are read before the whole corps weekly, and recorded, and posted up, in a conspicuous place.

The prominent features of this government are military, tempered, however, by the patriarchal supervision of the superintendent. The government is military, inasmuch as the students are subject to martial law, and governed by a written code of regulations; all violations of these are subject to the cognizance of a court martial, composed of officers of the army.

It was remarked by Milton, (*Tractate of Education*,) '*That* education only can be considered as complete and generous, which fits a man to perform justly, skilfully, and magnanimously, all the offices both private and public, of peace, and of war.' The system of education adopted at the military academy we think peculiarly adapted to produce such an effect as that truly great man approved. This system is calculated to form the mind for thinking and acting correctly, as well as for giving the body that muscular energy and action, so necessary for the perfect development of the powers of the mind.

The detail of the course of studies, embraces nearly all that is useful for a good scientific education; we say nearly all, because we think there are some parts of this course that are not so much attended to as their importance requires, as we shall point out hereafter.

In the course of studies there is nothing, but what may be found in that of other similar institutions, it is only of the judicious and perfect mode in which they are taught, that we would speak. The great secret in teaching is so to direct the young mind as to draw out its latent powers, so to arrange the progress of the pupil that his acquired knowledge may assist him in the acquisition of that which follows. It is a great error in education to suppose that the pupil's progress in any science, is only in the

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simple proportion to the propositions learned; when the first principles are once clearly understood, his progress is proportionate to the activity of his mind. The latent powers of the young mind are most readily drawn out in full relief by exciting the mind to emulation, not so however as to generate envy and angry feelings, an emulation to excel in understanding more than in the powers of memory; this we conceive is done in the most effectual manner by the mode of instruction pursued at West Point. If the superiority of this school consists in the means adopted to excite and keep in action this emulation and thirst for knowledge, and after being excited is so directed as to compress into the smallest space of time, the greatest quantity of knowledge, it must be of advantage to the public, to point out the means by which so desirable an end is obtained.

The principal means of exciting this emulation are the following. First, distributive merit is a great and efficient means; this is arranged in the following manner. At the beginning of the yearly term in September, each class is divided into sections of about twenty each, according to merit in previous studies, except the fourth class, which is divided according to the alphabetical list of the names. Each of these sections is under the instruction of a separate teacher for each branch of study; when assembled for recitation each cadet is seated according to his individual merit. Daily records of the merit of each student, according to his recitation, are kept and reported to the superintendent weekly. Where a cadet in any section below the first shows by diligence and merit that he is below his proper standing, he is transferred up to the next highest section, on the recommendation of his tutor; and the same is done of those who are deficient, they are transferred down to the next lowest section; in this way every neglect of studies is immediately punished, and each scholar soon obtains his proper standing,—that adapted to his talents and application.

It will readily be seen, that the course of education here pursued is not only scientific but laborious; and from the manner in which the sections are organized it will be seen that the diligent and talented are not retarded in their progress by the idle and dull. There are some minds so active and studious, that they become restless and idle, if restrained by the slow progress of their inferiors; and where the young mind is zealous and ambitious of the acquisition of knowledge, but slight curbs are necessary for restraining it within the bounds of utility. The system adopted at this school is eminently calculated for this free

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and luxuriant growth of the faculties, and this more particularly, because it holds out something tangible and comprehensible to the young mind, as a reward for diligence; each cadet knows that his standing in the profession he has chosen, depends entirely upon his own exertions, upon the degree of application he shall bestow upon his studies, while at the school: he knows that he has not to wait for fortuitous circumstances to bring his talents and acquisitions before his patrons, like young men in other professions.

Another judicious mode of excitement at this school, is the mode of recitation. The lessons are required to be learnt before assembling for recitation; the exercises in mathematics, mechanics, physics, astronomy, and the like sciences, are performed at a large black board placed upon an easel; upon which the student draws his diagrams, works out algebraical equations &c., with chalk, after which he proceeds in a logical and proper manner to demonstrate his work. This mode of exercise not only enables the student to show his knowledge of the subject before him to the best advantage, but also enables the instructer to be most thorough and critical in his examination; it also deprives the idle of all chance of escape, the recitation of each scholar depends upon himself and not upon his neighbour. The exercises in engineering are conducted in the same manner. Geography is taught after the French, *méthode graphique*, that is, by delineating upon the black board the principal features of a country or state, and then explaining it. An eminent man* once observed of this method of teaching, 'that it not only made scientific men, but it also made orators.'

Probabably the greatest incitement to application at this school is the system of weekly, half yearly, and yearly rolls of merit. The weekly merit roll, is a tabular view of the three or more most distinguished scholars of each section and class, during the past week, together with the names of such as from negligence, are thought to deserve censure. This roll exhibits the merit specifically in each branch, and is posted up in a public part of the school for the inspection of all.

The semiannual roll is made from the examination in the month of January, and exhibits the general and particular merit of each student, during the preceding half year. This roll is forwarded to the government at Washington, and also read and

* The Rev. Dr. McAuley, of New-York, one of the Board of Visitors in 1824.

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posted up at the academy. The sections are reorganized according to this roll.

The general or annual merit roll is made from the yearly examination in the month of June, and is conducted by the officers and professors, assisted by a number of invited visitors styled a *Board*. This roll is printed and distributed throughout the country.

These examinations are not merely formal, but they are laborious and thorough, as may be judged from the time taken in performing them. It requires twenty days of nine hours each to complete the whole. It is a singular fact in favour of these examinations, that they never fail of exciting the warmest feelings in favour of the academy, from all who witness them. The reports of the Board of Visitors have always expressed a high commendation of the instruction, government, and discipline of the school; and we know of nothing which can be more in praise of it, when we consider the talents and standing of the gentlemen who have composed these boards.

The discipline of the academy is strict and guarded. The cadets are obliged to rise at daybreak, and to retire, for the night, at 10 o'clock; but little time is left for idle recreation; military exercises are substituted for these; and every hour is devoted to its appropriate duty. Vacations there are none; there are two month's suspension from mental duty, which are devoted to military field and camp duties.

At this school there is no corner for idleness to lurk in, and no unobserved place for dissipation to revel in. Upon such a basis of discipline there is every thing to incite to perseverance: every manifestation of correct deportment there receives its immediate reward.

The government of this academy is founded upon the purest principles of equality, no moneyed, political, or religious party can here influence the standing of any cadet. No peculiar tenets of religion or politics are here taught to the exclusion of all others; and we venture to say that no institution for education sends its graduates into society, trammelled with fewer prejudices than this. There is not a school or college in our country where the pure principles of our government are more clearly exemplified than in this; the sons of the humblest citizens may here wrest the wreath from the brows of those whose parents are rich, dignified, and loaded with official honours. Talents and perseverance, when accompanied with good conduct, here receive their merited reward; and it has been remarked by a distinguished mem-

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ber of our national legislature, that the son of a corporal in the army, has taken the highest honours of his class, while the sons of governors, and senators, have been dismissed for dullness or idlenes. This great and ennobling principle in the government of our national school, would be sufficient, of itself, to stamp it with the character it has long maintained, that of unsparing justice in its distribution of rewards and punishments.

There are a few defects which we have noticed in the application of the details, of the course of education taught at this academy, which we would wish corrected

Many of the young officers of the army, who are all graduates of the academy, are at the present time employed in the preparatory operations necessary for the foundation of a general system of internal improvement, for which purpose it is necessary that they be well and thoroughly versed in surveying, geodesie and linear ; in civil engineering, and mineralogy ; they should be not merely scientific but practical men : we are a practical people and require practical men to aid us in our progress to improvement. Our country presents a vast and almost unimproved field for the employment of practical skill in the above sciences. The course of mathematics, as taught at the academy, is too theoretical ; too much attention is given to abstract theory, and, consequently, not enough to practical application, we allude particularly to surveying ; to make the most direct application of mathematics, is to apply it to mensuration. It too frequently happens that more importance is attached to the demonstration of a long and intricate principle than to its application ; and although a student may be able to demonstrate *Taylor's Theorem*, it does not necessarily follow that he can apply it. Mathematics, to be taught with advantage, should have every principle applied, not merely such as are helps to other parts of the science, but such as have a direct reference to the business of life. It is this application which is wanting at this academy ; and not only in the above science but in mechanics and physics, generally. There are but few of the cadets who are not readily able to demonstrate almost any proposition of Newton's Principia, but if called upon to trace their application to the practical uses of optics and astronomy, many would be unable to do it. Because a student may be able to calculate an eclipse, it does not follow that he can show how the numerous tables of which he makes use, are calculated :—the students at West Point could easily demonstrate the propositions, and adduce the formulas, (if required to do it,) in the words of the original enunciation. This

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defect in this part of the course cannot be attributed to the want of practical tact in the professors; for the gentleman who has long filled the chair of physics, is well known as one of our most distinguished philosophic instructers.

The course of chemistry, in common with that of many other schools and colleges, is much too theoretical; it wants that practical spirit, which renders this science so interesting to young minds. To be taught with advantage, its applications to the daily affairs of life, to the operations of nature, to the arts and trades, should be constantly exhibited; as soon as a principle is unfolded and clearly comprehended, it should be applied. The minute details with which our class books on this subject are filled, are of use only to the professed or experimental chemist.

The science of mineralogy is well taught at this academy; but even this science is not communicated with that spirit of utility of which it is susceptible. The application of mineralogy to geology is not only highly interesting, but of the greatest utility, as connected with the internal resources of our country, whose mineral riches, as yet, have hardly been discovered. This science is susceptible of but few direct applications to the wants of a commercial and agricultural people, but as connected with geology it is of the highest importance, and therefore should be taught only with a view to the secondary use. This is not the case at West Point, all the importance is attached to mineralogy. If a cadet were presented with a rare mineral, he could readily tell its distinctive characters and locality; but if required to point out the geological indications of coal, lime, or metals, would be unable to do it. To this cause is owing the meagre appearance of mineralogical information in the reports made to congress by the government surveyors. The illustration of general principles is of much more importance than minute details upon the angles of crystals or the colours of animals.

The students from this academy, to fulfil all the duties they may be called upon to perform, should be able to go directly and alone, into the field and run a line and level for a canal, railroad, or turnpike; to give the geological indications of the ground, to know whether the rocks found upon the route will resist heat and cold; in fine, to give all the information furnished by the ground, necessary for determining the practicability of the work; and their education is sufficient for this purpose; if their theory was reduced to practice, which cannot be done at the school, until there is a radical reform in the *manner* of instruction.

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The course of engineering is not sufficiently calculated to make practical men. The theory is pursued to its greatest extent, under the direction of the learned professor in this department, but the students want that practice so essential to a good engineer. They should be practised in drawing up plans of the resources and defence of particular military sites, in which should be embraced, the particular topography of the country around, its population, the state of agriculture, its productions; the rivers, brooks, mills, the roads, canals, and bridges; the resources of the country in bread stuffs and forage, in horses, cattle, and carriages; the different military positions, and the means of defending them; all of which should constitute the subject of a *memoir* to be drawn up by each student, and presented to the professor for his examination and revisal. They should also be required to direct the march of a given army, for which they should calculate the number of men and kinds of troops to be marched upon given routes, in order to arrive at given positions in given times.

The course of drawing is altogether ill-directed; it consists in copying heads with crayon, in copying fanciful landscapes, and for a few weeks, in copying a few select pieces of topographical drawing. There is no practice in drawing from nature, which we conceive to be a very great neglect. Instead of the academy halls being adorned with views of the surrounding scenery, (as fine as any in nature,) they are filled with copies from the antique and fancy scenes.

We have been somewhat free in pointing out what we consider defects or deficiences in the course of education at this truly national school, because we think the importance of such an institution to our country, and the favour with which it is viewed by our countrymen, demand such improvement as are suited to the spirit of the age in which we live, and such as are needed by our country.

The following is a list of the number of officers and professors attached to the academy. Those marked with an astérisk are officers of the army.

* 1 Superintendent.
* 1 Commandant and Instructer of Tactics.
* 4 Assistants, do. do.
* 1 Teacher of Artillery.
1 Professor of Engineering.
* 1 Assistant of do.
1 Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy.
* 2 Assistants of do. do.

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1 Professor of Mathematics.
* 7 Assistants of do.
* 1 Professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy.
* 2 Assistants of do. do.
2 Teachers of the French Language.
* 1 Assistant of do. do.
1 Professor of History, and Chaplain.
* 1 Assistant of do.
1 Teacher of Drawing.
* 3 Assistants of do.
* 1 Quarter Master.
* 1 Adjutant.
* 1 Surgeon.
1 Sutler.
1 Sword Master.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Moral Education.

[The following article is translated from an early number of the French Journal of Education. The views of the writer of this essay, though somewhat speculative in their character, present a very instructive train of thought on a subject of great moment to human happiness, in its earliest period. The efficiency, steadiness, and consistency of parental control, lay, to a great extent, the surest foundation of regular habits in mature years ; while a vacillating, feeble, and inconsiderate management of childhood, transfuses into the character of adult life most of those evils which result from disorderly affections and ill regulated habits.

The definition given in the following essay of the object of parental interference with the actions and feelings of infancy, is, we think, exceedingly happy. Parents are not perhaps sufficiently in the habit of remembering that although a command or a prohibition may be sufficient for the moment, it has not always the power of awakening thought and influencing the disposition in subsequent actions ; that the great object should be to reach the will, the true source of action, and yet to affect it in such a way as to leave the child the consciousness of freedom and the pleaure of self approbation. The study of an indirect influence over the affections, is an object in harmony with the best feelings and the happiest ingenuity of the maternal mind.]

The stimulus to all action is the dread of pain and the thirst for pleasure ; but, to be truly happy, man ought neither to flee every kind of pain nor to seek every kind of pleasure. As there

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are pains which are useful to us, so there are pleasures which are pernicious ; and even among those which may contribute to our happiness, there are some the knowledge of which must be referred back to a period which nature itself has clearly determined, others which have no real value except so far as they have been purchased by some pain ; indeed, even those which are not innocent never ought to be lavished upon us for fear of cloying, and bringing in their train ennui and often a disgust of life.

To form children to happy habits ; to prevent them from contracting, or to correct those which might prove obstacles to their happiness,—such is, in general, if I do not mistake, the object of moral education. But common pleasures, or those which we can only enjoy by participation with others,—such as those attached to the exercise of beneficence, of generosity, of humanity, and of the other social virtues ; but, above all, that sentiment which in identifying us with our fellow being makes us enjoy all their pleasures, suffer all their sorrows, are truly those which may contribute most to our happiness, and I may add, the best calculated to inspire in us aversion to pernicious pleasures. I may then conclude that the principal object of moral education, is, to give us the taste and the habit of this kind of pleasure. But in order that children may seek it and make the enjoyment of it a habit, it is first necessary for them to have felt and proved it : no one seeks what he knows nothing about, no one can act from motives which are never presented to his mind.

We enter into life, if we may so speak, by the gate of pain. The child weeps as soon he feels the pressure of the air ; this delicacy, this mobility of the organs, which renders it so sensitive to pain, is designed, for the same reason, to give it pleasure, of some nature or other, very lively and very attractive. We must not then be astonished that the child is so ardent in the pursuit of every thing that amuses it, that recreates its senses or satisfies its wants ; that he demands pleasure incessantly of every thing which surrounds him, that he seeks and importunes all those who can can contribute to his pleasure, that their presence delights him, that their absence makes him uneasy, and draws tears from him. Most parents take all this for attachment, tenderness, love ; but it is only selfishness. In all this the child thinks only of himself, is occupied only with himself. If any one wishes to be convined of it, let him only feign to have an urgent desire for something that gives much pleasure to a child, he will rarely offer it willingly, if at all ; he will usually refuse it if he

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is asked for it, and only give it up when he is sure of a prompt reward, or that his generosity will be liberally indemnified.

Every child whose wishes have always been anticipated, every child accustomed to receive and to taste pleasure without ever feeling the wish or the necessity of procuring it for others, must soon be disgusted with every thing whose enjoyment is facilitated to him, must regard as a right every thing which is done for him, as injustice every refusal and every condition to the accomplishment of his desires or wishes ; he will fly into a passion whenever he is contradicted, and become angry, disobedient, peevish, and end perhaps by hating and regarding as so many enemies those who will wish to correct his inclinations or reform his habits.

Another result of the conduct which is usually observed towards children, is to make them regard every thing that is done for them as their due. But if you are always studying to anticipate the desires of your child, always eager to shield it from the slightest trouble,—in short, if you have always granted every thing, without requiring any thing, it is impossible for you not to have planted in his soul two vices, the two greatest scourges of society, I mean pride and selfishness.

Pride.—A child accustomed to find no obstacles to his wishes, cannot fail to perceive the difference in his own condition and that of others who are incessantly going, coming, and toiling for him ; for truly, since so many people take so much trouble for him, he who takes none for others must be of another and a superior nature. Add to this the profound admiration of the governess, the aunt, the grandmother, for every word that comes out of his mouth, for his gentility, his good appearance, &c. Here is certainly more than enough to turn his head ; we 'great children' are often so affected ourselves.

Selfishness.—A child brought up, as we here suppose, must evidently make himself the centre of every thing, refer every thing to himself, and only occupy himself with others as they can be useful to his pleasures. Why should he render a service in order to obtain one, if he can obtain it without ? Why should he take a step to procure a pleasure, if he has only to move his lips for this pleasure to come to him ? If it is, then, the nature of children to become selfish, it is ourselves who are inexcusable in allowing them thus to isolate themselves, when so many ties bind them to us, in allowing them to shut up their hearts from us, when we have so many means of penetrating theirs.

However weak parents may be, it is impossible, if they do not

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wish to make their children monsters, that they should always continue this line of conduct towards them. In proportion as a child grows up, it becomes from day to day more difficult to satisfy all his desires, to execute all his wishes. If, however, all his wishes have been gratified heretofore, if everything has been granted him and nothing required of him, why change our conduct towards him precisely when his physical and moral faculties begin to strengthen? Are his inclinations and habits weakened because he has grown taller? You will perhaps point out to him the future misfortunes that await him if he perseveres in those habits, if he continues to abandon himself to these inclinations; but what is the future to him who is never occupied but with the present? What are future evils, evils which he has never felt, in comparison with present pleasure, of which he knows the full value? Will you urge the impossibility of satisfying him? But what is impossibility to him who has always found every thing possible? It is simply injustice and ill will on your part.

It will perhaps be observed to me that I do not place sufficent dependence upon the development of reason; yet it is precisely his reason which accuses us, and justifies him in his own eyes. Human reason, and especially that which guides our childhood, is, in general, only the product of experience and of habit. Your child has always found persons eager to accomplish all his desires. You have constantly obeyed all his wishes. This connection has long been established in his train, and has acquired so much the more force as it is the more agreeable to him. It is his reason itself which shows him unjust and ill intentioned people, in all those who contradict his habits and inclinations. And what must a feeling of injustice and ill will in those whom he regards as the enemies to his pleasure, produce in the soul of a child,—anger, rage, hatred. Yes, I maintain it, the malignant passions are always the product of a bad education.

It will doubtless be objected here that I leave to parents and children but one alternative, and that an embarrassing one; for, on one side, if we always yield to the wishes of children, pride and selfishness will necessarily take possession of their souls; on the other side, if we resist them and contradict them, they must necessarily be delivered up to malignant passions. However, we must either resist or yield to their wishes.

We may do better; we may prevent them from having desires or wishes which they will be obliged to resist, or we may resist

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them in an indirect manner; for the essential object of moral education is, not to make children do what we wish, but to make *them* wish it. But to accomplish that, we must first begin by really wishing it ourselves. Let no surprise be manifested at my here questioning the reality of such wishes on the part of parents; it is but too true that they are hardly ever convinced of this truth; and it is this indecision which so often leads them to the temptation of resisting it. Can threats, reproaches, orders given, countermanded, and contradicted a hundred times in the same day, be honoured with the name of wishes? But children are never mistaken in this respect; slaves to our caprices, holding their existence and all the pleasures which make them love it, from us, they learn early to observe, to study our tastes, our inclinations and our characters. If they find us weak, irresolute, undecided, their imaginations immediately magnify the pleasures of which we wish to deprive them, the pain to which we wish to subject them. The temptation to resist takes possession of their minds with the hope of conquering, and gains strength, if I may so speak, from all our weakness. If, on the contrary, they are thoroughly convinced of our energy and determination of character, they take their resolution, and no longer place their happiness on a resistance to a will which they know to be immovable. I do not recommend that you should command as a despot, and make yourself obeyed as a tyrant; man is debased by the fear inspired by a fellow creature. I wish still less that you should make him regard the yoke of your will as that of necessity, because we only regard as such that which is imposed on us by nature. But, what is better than all that, make him consider the execution of your wishes as a pleasure done to you, as a service tendered to you,—in short as a means of contributing to your happiness.

But why, it will be said, have recourse to such complicated cares, if by vigorous punishment, we can immediately obtain the same result? Obtain the same result!—doubtless, if the only thing to be considered were immediate obedience; but, I repeat it, the aim of education is not to produce obedience, but to make the child feel pleasure in doing every thing we wish. He must then be truly convinced that in doing your will he really contributes to your happiness; for man attaches himself to others still more by the good he does than by what he receives. But can a child ever believe that he contributes to your happiness, and consequently become attached to you by acts of obedience which you force from him by punishment? And do you always force

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those acts of obedience? How many times does it happen that he grows callous to what he calls your tyranny, and that he would rather bleed than yield to you? You have then excited in his soul malignant passions, you have made him proof both to barbarity and weakness, while he regards himself as a hero and a martyr.

EDUCATION OF FEMALES.

Domestic Management.

[The following practical suggestions are taken from the work on domestic education, mentioned in our last number. Several of the author's remarks apply more directly to the state of education in England; but the spirit and intention of the observations embodied in this article will admit of a useful application to all attempts at improvement in the instruction of the female sex.]

To that middling class of life, to which these thoughts are principally directed, there is no female accomplishment more valuable than housewifery. By that class is it sufficiently prized as an accomplishment? or wisely inculcated as a necessary branch of education? It is feared not. Few girls are regularly initiated into the various household duties; yet, to all girls, the knowledge of them is essential, since, as wives, daughters, or sisters, all will probably have households to superintend. How extensive the mischiefs caused by ignorance of housewifery, we every day hear and see painful instances. The misery endured by the helpless, untaught individual, in feeling her ignorance, and seeing the varied forms of evil that ignorance produces, must be most severe. Let not mothers wilfully condemn their daughters to sorrow, disgrace, and error, from which it is so easy to rescue them.

The duties of housewifery being generally of an active and desultory nature, are usually very agreeable in the performance to active and variety-loving young people. They will, therefore, be cheerfully attempted and pursued, and we shall enlarge the pleasures of girls, by the same encouragement with which we prosecute their improvement.

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But there is one caution that must be undeviatingly regarded. In pursuing the superintendence of housekeeping, girls must act as the mild but respected *directors* of servants, not as their associates, confidantes, and playmates. This rule can be easily enforced. Children should be taught to regard servants as *fellow-creatures*,* as beings like themselves, prone to error, but capable of virtue. At the same time, they should be taught that, whilst they may love and pity those beneath them, and respect those above them, it is always most wise to choose their companions and friends, as much as possible, in their own rank :—on this principle, namely, that they may not learn to domineer over mean associates, nor cringe beneath great ones.

This premised, the first lessons of housewifery should be practised under the eye of the mother. At fifteen years of age, a girl will know enough of arithmetic to be ready at accounts, and will have sufficient judgment to reason fairly on what she observes. At that age she may occasionally attend her mother in her daily visit to the kitchen and the larder. Let her behold the arrangement of household business—the manner of giving directions—the plan of furnishing supplies ;—she will thus gradually imbibe a clear conception of all such matters—she will understand the usefulness of method—she will find out the usual consumption of a family ;—she may be taught, *by example*, to censure with mildness—to listen reasonable excuses,—to be peremptory in just orders ;—to know what to expect from the industry, and what to pardon to the frailty, of domestics.

To avoid a dangerous association with menials, it would be advisable to bound the exertions of the *youthful* housekeeper to superintendence. Unless urged by imperious necessity, let not girls *assist* the labours of servants. It is money badly saved to to make them perform any humble business, which, for a few shillings, could be performed by a hireling. The mother had better do it herself, if she cannot afford those few shillings, or dispense with smart clothing for herself or her child, to meet the expense, or be present when her child is so occupied.

It is not from a sentiment of pride that this point is so earnestly recommended, but it is from a desire to check the dissemination of error. When a young lady and her maid are engaged together in some occupation, they must enter into conversation ; now, of what nature must that conversation prove. The maid

* In the Life of Mr. Edgeworth, published by his daughter, it is gratifying to read the retraction of some of that gentleman's severe strictures on servants.

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would not understand the wisdom, nor relish the morality, of her polite associate ; but both maid and miss could understand, and, we fear, both would relish, the retailed news of the day—anecdotes of neighbours and petty scandal. By this power or communication both maid and miss are contaminated. The menial is encouraged in habits of espionage and scandal, and the mind of the young lady is irreparably vulgarized and poisoned. It were better she should perform the whole labour in the parlour or her own chamber, than that such a fearful risk should be run by association with a servant.

The management of the breakfast and tea-table, will induce some knowledge of performing the honours of the mistress of a house. Occasionally, the whole arrangement of the house may devolve on the young housekeeper. At sixteen she may be invested in all the rights and duties of household superintendence. The mother may sometimes interfere with advice, but let the whole responsibility rest with the daughter, that thus, being thrown on her own powers, she may early learn judiciously to exert those powers. We have seen girls of sixteen very judiciously conduct household affairs ; and, when mistakes occur, as occur they must to beginners, in all the offices and buinesses of life, it is better they should occur under the paternal roof, where partial relatives are prompt to excuse and remedy ; than in the first days of bridal management, when the agitated mind is full of the variety and novelty of its duties, and new friends and new kindred are less disposed to pardon and correct.

Great pains are taken to instil knowledge into the youthful mind ; the memory is loaded with facts and morals, and the various branches of learning, in arts and sciences, are carefully taught. But, with this knowledge, and with this learning, it is necessary, at the same time, to inspire a resolution, and to induce a habit of bringing the acquired information into use. By reflecting on the traits of character, and the facts recorded in biography, many excellent maxims could be drawn for the conduct of life, and even our skill in any of the fine arts, and our familiarity in any of the abstruser sciences, might be made subservient to the purposes of domestic duty. A young lady, acquainted with the general principles of chemistry, could, with increased intelligence and precision, direct many of the domestic operations of a household ; and, some knowledge of the laws of nature, (as developed in natural and experimental philosophy,) would tend to many useful results in the business of private life. So far from thinking it a degradation to use the information, ob-

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tained from such sources, to the purposes of household and domestic matters, it should be impressed on the young mind, that learning and wisdom are only valuable inasmuch as they are useful; and, as women have few opportunities of being of assistance in the higher walks of science, they will have little chance of being serviceable, except in the humble, and often not less important, labours of domestic life. Nor must they, like the hoarding wife, so ably depicted in the Idler,* store up their treasures, without plan or prospect of bringing them into *daily* use, whilst anticipating future demand for the accumulated stock.

'I do not inquire how much you have read and studied on the human powers; but I ask how you *exert* those powers?' This is one of many powerful passages in *Epictetus*, as rendered to us by Miss Carter.

REVIEW.

Infant Education; or Remarks on the Importance of Educating the Infant Poor, from the age of eighteen months to seven years; with an account of some of the Infant Schools in England, and the System of Education there adopted: selected and abridged from the works of Wilderspin, Goyder, and others, adapted to the use of Infant Schools in America. By a Friend to the Poor. New-York. 1827. 18mo. pp. 108.

First Annual Report of the Infant School Society of the City of New-York. Instituted May 23, 1827. New-York. 1828. 8vo. pp. 16.

The subject of our present article, our readers will recollect as one to which their attention was often directed in the early numbers of the Journal. Infant schools were, at the time when our labours commenced, a charitable undertaking but recently attempted, and restricted to a few of the larger cities of England. Since that period, the experiment has, by its singular success, commended itself to the countenance and the exertions of the benevolent throughout that country; and latterly it has been in-

* No. 35.

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troduced in several of the most populous cities in the United States. Where it has been fairly tried, there has been, we believe, but one opinion of its merits. It is found to be a most effective means of promoting early improvement, in that class of the community to which chiefly it has hitherto been confined. A degree of apprehension, however, is entertained by some, that the results of the introduction of infant schools, though salutary in the case of the neglected population of European cities, may not be found so advantageous to the condition and character of the poorer class among us. In the larger towns of England, and especially in those in which a large proportion of the people subsist by manufactures, there must be a numerous class whose cirstances and whose views of life are so little elevated, that they are equally unable and unwilling to make the requisite sacrifices for the proper education of their children; and that in such cases some benevolent measures should be taken for improving the condition of the rising generation, is certainly desirable. In the United States, on the other hand, few or no obstacles exist, it is said, to the general diffusion of the benefits of education. The humblest of the people are able to educate their children respectably; and it is seldom that any are found reluctant to be at the necessary expense. To offer, therefore, the aid of gratuitous schools, for any stage of instruction, is either superfluous or injurious; as it only professes to facilitate what already is found sufficiently easy, or—which would prove a serious detriment to the spirit and character of the people—would induce a tendency to reliance on the efforts of others for what each individual should be left to procure by his own enterprize and diligence. Schools of the kind alluded to, are, it is said, a valuable link in the chain of society, where it is desirable that the poor should feel their dependence on the rich; but they must prove worse than useless where self-reliance and independent exertion are, in a peculiar sense, the basis of the common welfare.

A doubt of a more general nature is also entertained with regard to the benefits of these schools. It is objected to them that they furnish occasion for remissness in the discharge of parental duties, by devolving the care of infancy on teachers, instead of leaving with the mother the full weight and responsibleness of her natural relation. The strength of domestic attachment in the child is also said to be weakened, by removing him for a considerable part of the day from home, and furnishing him with enjoyments of a higher kind than he could experience there.

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All these objections are such as present themselves at the outset of an infant school, rather than those which are reported after opportunity has been afforded for applying the test of experience. That they are not well founded it is hardly necessary to prove at great length. In the maritime cities, if not in the manufacturing towns of this country, there is constantly on the increase a large class of the people, in circumstances too nearly resembling those of the corresponding portion of the community in England,—prone to neglect the education of their children or indulging in habits which disable them for that duty. The great evil of an ignorant and vicious and helpless population, must ere long ensue from such a state of things, unless a timely and effectual remedy is applied. Such a remedy is offered by the infant schools; and certainly it is much to be preferred that the remedy should be found too easily and generally accessible, than that the disease should be permitted to spread till fatal consequences are unavoidable. But it is by no means true that the establishment of infant schools lowers the standard of responsibility or of exertion on the part of parents. These schools, when rightly managed, become fruitful sources of direct good to the parents of the pupils, and to the community at large. When a school of this sort is once in operation, and its benefits begin to be felt, a small sum, sufficient to incite the parent to exertion, is required for the tuition of the children; so that an additional inducement to industry and economy and personal independence, is actually brought to bear upon that class of society for whose benefit the school is intended. Great moral improvement and entire reformation have, in several well authenticated instances, been produced in this way.

As to the supposed evil of diminishing the sense of maternal responsibility, there is likewise a mistake. It is unfortunately too true that in some of our larger cities there are not a few mothers whose personal habits disqualify them entirely for any charge of a moral nature, and very many whose lives are necessarily so occupied in toil, that they can devote but very little time or attention to their maternal duties. In such cases, aid of one kind or other is indispensable; and the question whether domestic affection may not thus be weakened, if it is not in itself a mere refinement of prejudice, must yield to the urgency of greater considerations. In some cases such as are now alluded to, a strong attachment to home is neither possible nor desirable; but wherever it is so, the influence of the infant school is to strengthen rather than to impair it: the temporary absence

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and the interval of care operate as a relief on the one hand, and as a fresh impulse to affection on the other.

But, leaving these extreme cases, there are few mothers, though unburdened with any employment but what arises from their own household affairs, that would not be aided in their exertions, by the relief afforded through an infant school, and very few young children that would not be benefited by the social enjoyments and the mental cultivation of which they might there partake.

The question at issue is simply this, whether it is advisable to commence education a few years earlier than has been usual hitherto, and in a way adapted to the capacity and the disposition of early childhood and of infancy. The answer to such a question must depend, of course, on the practicability and adaptation of the methods employed or proposed for applying education at so early a stage of life ; and to these points it may not be disadvantageous to revert, especially as our chief object at present is, to suggest the application of some parts of the infant school system to elementary education in *all* schools in which young children are taught.

The methods adopted in most infant schools are derived, with more or less modification, from the plan of instruction adopted by the philanthropic Pestalozzi, whose characteristic excellence as an instructer was that he made it his great aim to promote an equal and proportionate cultivation of all the powers of the human being,—of all, at least, which might be classed under the three great heads of the *intellect*, the *affections*, and the *corporeal faculties*. If any preference among these was manifested at all by him, it was in favour of the culture of the heart, as the grand source of character and of happiness.

In the infant school system, this peculiar feature has been made more prominent still ; and while neither the understanding nor the health of the pupils is overlooked, the great object is to develope and cherish the better affections. On this part of our subject, however, it is unnecessary to enter at great length ; as our readers are already in possession of all the information concerning it, which could be collected from the works of Wilson, Wilderspin, and Goyder ; the practical and the most interesting parts of whose publications were transcribed at intervals, in our first two volumes. Occasional references to these extracts would extend and fill up the slight outline which we now attempt, chiefly for the advantage of such of our readers as did not commence with the early numbers of the Journal.

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The object of infant schools, it has been mentioned, is to effect something for the intellectual and moral improvement of young children, by methods harmonizing with the cultivation of health and the immediate gratification of the propensity for enjoyment at that early age. All these objects are pursued in combination, or in a varied and pleasing succession, affording that occasional relief, and that charm of novelty, which the tender years of the scholar require. Healthful exercise and play and intervals of rest are judiciously interspersed with mental occupations; and sometimes these are united in a particular form of amusement. The direct instruction given by the teacher is imparted chiefly in conversation, enlivened by question and answer, and so managed as gently to guide the infant mind to useful thought, without denying it the animating consciousness of its own voluntary action. The cultivation of good dispositions being the great object of these schools, every lesson is made, as far as possible, to subserve this great point; it is to this end also that so much attention is devoted to the present happiness of the children. The intellectual instruction given in the infant schools is carefully adapted to the capacity and the circumstances of childhood. The teacher makes it his endeavour to render every subject familiar to his scholars, by full and interesting explanations, and by appropriate questions, and in all cases in which it is practicable, by resorting to visible objects or to representations of them. The memory is charged with nothing which is not rendered intelligible or applied in some practical way. Even the elementary tables of arithmetic are learned in useful and pleasing forms; and not unfrequently the repetition of them is performed along with some active bodily exercise, to the movements of which they are recited in measured time.

The result of all these arrangements is, as might naturally be expected, an overflowing happiness on the part of the children, and much gratification to the teacher. The irksomeness of subjection is lost in cheerful and voluntary compliance, produced, in a great measure, by sympathy; and the sternness of control is displaced by the air and manner of affectionate interest. A predominating spirit of affection becomes visible throughout the school; and the first steps in education are made to increase rather than check the pleasures of childhood.

What we have now, for brevity's sake, expressed in general terms, may be illustrated by one or two references to the methods generally adopted in the instruction of infant schools.

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Health has been mentioned, as one prominent object in the management of these schools: this is promoted by a strict regard to cleanliness of person, by large airy rooms, spacious playgrounds, free exercise, frequent change of position, comfortable accommodations, and the exhilarating tendency of all the arrangements of the school. In addition to all which, is the maternal care of a judicious female, in whatever requires her attention to their comfort. As specimens of *intellectual* instruction in these schools, we may refer to the ingenious methods of teaching in reading and spelling, to the lessons in natural history, illustrated by plates, and to the conversations on various objects of common use, in which specimens of the different articles are used. These and many other exercises which our present space will not permit us to mention, draw out the minds of children with a peculiar force and felicity, and not in arbitrary and mechanical ways, but in such as bear the nearest possible resemblance to the daily action of the mind in the common concerns of life.

The *moral* instruction imparted in the infant schools, is drawn in part from interesting stories, some of which are taken from the scriptures; but it is made, with peculiar success, to emanate from the teacher's tones and looks, from the prevailing happiness of all, and from every arrangement and contrivance of the school.

These are but glances at this copious and interesting subject, which at present we must leave our readers to pursue for themselves in the little volume mentioned at the commencement of this article, or in the numbers of the Journal.

We hasten to the consideration of the question how far the methods adopted in infant schools might be useful in all elementary schools for little children. Here there is no doubt abundant room for the exercise of personal judgment in relation to the age and condition of children in particular schools, leaving the teacher to determine what particular methods would prove suitable and useful, and to what extent or with what modifications they should be introduced. A few of the principal features of the infant school system, however, are evidently adapted to early education in general, and would accelerate the progress of young children in those branches to which their attention is usually directed, besides introducing several not commonly included in elementary tuition. In addition to which considerations one of greater moment may be urged,—we mean the general improvement of the whole mind, by the increased activ-

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ity of its powers, and its direction to new and interesting objects, as well as its more full enjoyment from its own action.

One prominent and striking advantage of the arrangements usually adopted in infant schools, is the liberal provision made for *the accommodation and comfort of the children.* In the thirteenth chapter of Mrs. Bethune's compilation, (*Infant Education,*) are several useful observations on the importance of having a large *play-ground* attached to every school of this description; and some very interesting facts are mentioned in illustration, which are drawn from the experience and observation of the teachers of these schools, and which show that the good results thus obtained are not confined to the improvement of health or the present gratification of the children, but extend to a fine influence on their temper and disposition and their behaviour to one another. In most schools for young children, there is too little attention paid to any advantage of this sort; and the teacher is daily annoyed by the irksome restlessness or entire languor of the little pupils, whose health and comfort are meanwhile seriously impaired by daily neglect.

The *rooms* used for infant schools are described as large, airy, and cheerful in their aspect, comfortably seated, and furnished with pleasing objects of various kinds, and attractive pictures. In this way health is much promoted, the spirits of the children are enlivened, and their minds kept in constant action. All these circumstances form a striking contrast to the small, confined, and often dismal apartments, in which elementary schools are usually taught; the scholars for the most part crowded on one another, and incommoded in every way, as well as exposed to serious injury from defective ventilation or from ill-regulated currents of cold or damp air. That in such instances occasional dullness or ill humour should pervade the whole school is not at all wonderful, when we recollect how easily the feelings and even the intellect of childhood are influenced by external objects.

The frequent *change of posture* in the routine of infant school exercises suggests another practicable improvement in primary schools. Inactivity of mind and a sluggish or constrained state of body, go necessarily together. In childhood, the circulation is naturally lively, impelling to involuntary and frequent change of attitude, and to an almost incessant action. But the tenderness of the bodily frame renders it peculiarly susceptible of influence whether good or bad; and this circumstance gives a vast and unfavourable scope to the prevailing management of juven-

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ile scholars. One or two prescribed attitudes are all that are allowed to a child, for the whole space of several hours; and every inclination to motion or to rest, at variance with these, becomes a fault. If left to the genial guidance of nature, the little sufferer would have relieved himself by perhaps a hundred movements or changes of posture within that time. We must not be told that children cannot be taught without perpetual stillness: this is proved to be a mere assumption, by the regulation of every monitorial school, and most of all by the schools for infants. In these it is shown that children may learn and say their lessons, too, in a vast variety of attitudes and movements, without any other consequence than that of enlivening the mind as well as the body; and cheerful and constant activity is perhaps a better early discipline for most kinds of business, than all the learning of a college. An excellent arrangement in the method of managing the infant schools, is that of allowing a change of place and a little exercise or recreation at short intervals throughout the school hours. All this could very easily be carried into effect in most elementary schools.

The great attention paid to *moral* improvement is another distinguishing feature in the infant school plan. This is made, in fact, the great business of the instructer; and it is carried on in a variety of ways, appealing to all the faculties in turn, and securing the whole attention of the children, by the interesting and ingenious methods in which it is conducted. Moral instruction, in these schools, comes with more frequency and with greater impressiveness than in others; and it is wrought up with every lesson and every exercise which is performed. Its chief excellence is the mild and affectionate manner of teaching and directing on the part of the instructers, proceeding from their entire devotedness to the happiness and the improvement of their charge. In most primary schools, an observer cannot but be struck with the harsh or impatient manner of the teachers, and their apparent forgetfulness of the feelings which they are crushing in early childhood, but which a kind and considerate treatment might have cherished into the truest sensibilities and finest graces of character. Firmness, we would never deny, is an indispensable requisite in good management; but firmness is not coarseness, nor temper, nor abruptness, nor repulsive sternness. This subject is one of great moment from its influence on personal habit, long after the days of childhood have passed away. Teachers can never be too careful in regard to what emotions they habitually cause their scholars to sympathize with, and ul-

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timately to express. Nor can any effectual improvement of temper or of manners be imparted by one who consciously and repeatedly fails to keep the great law of human love in its most obvious requirements. Above all men a teacher needs to know his own spirit and habitual tendencies, that he may throw no hindrance in the way of childhood in its progress to mature and active virtue,—that he may watch with skill and effect over the minds which are expanding and forming under his care, and which he may injure or benefit for ever.

The *intellectual* instruction communicated in the infant schools suggests several improvements, which might be easily transferred to others. In most elementary schools, teachers are content to confine their exertions to mere tuition in reading and spelling. But the infant schools have satisfactorily shown that there are many subjects level even to the capacity of infants, which may be introduced in early education, and many ways in which the minds of young children may be employed to great advantage as well as with much pleasure. Exercises in counting, in reciting arithmetical and other useful tables, hymns, and moral verses,—exercises on the appearances, qualities and uses of objects, the history of plants and minerals, the habits of animals, are all occasionally employed to interest and instruct the mind.

The very toys used in play are rendered serviceable to instruction ; and the practice of singing is in some schools regularly attended to. From these and similar sources the teachers of primary schools might draw much interesting and useful employment for their pupils.

The *method* of imparting instruction at the infant schools has also many excellent points of distinction. It is chiefly a recourse to free conversation, interspersed with questions and enlivened with abundant illustrations, and carried home to the understanding and the feelings of the little listeners, in various ways, suggested by the experience and the watchful observation of the instructer.

It is with a degree of reluctance that we leave this interesting subject for another opportunity. In the meantime, we would recommend the publications mentioned at the commencement of this article, to all who are desirous of becoming acquainted with the subject of infant schools, or of doing something for the improvement of early education generally. The volume entitled 'Infant Education' will, we think, prove an interesting book to parents as well as teachers. In the course of this article our

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references to the work have been general rather than particular; and we have forborne to quote from it, chiefly because most of its contents occur in former numbers of the Journal, in articles extracted from the same sources from which the work itself is compiled. From the Report, of which we have copied the title at the head of this article, we transcribe the following interesting paragraphs.

The Society was formed and organized June, 28, under the patronage of His Excellency the Governor.

As soon as sufficient funds were collected to warrant the commencement of operations, a School was opened July 16, in the basement story of the Canal-street Church, which is known as Infant School, No. I. The names of 170 children are registered; the average attendance, from 60 to 100;* two teachers are employed, and an assistant whose business is to attend to the smaller children, make the fires, sweep the school rooms, &c.

During the summer and fall months, many parents availed themselves of the privilege of sending their younger children; but owing to the state of the weather, few under three years have attended during the winter. Of those children from three to six years, who have been pretty regular in their attendance during five or six months, nearly all can read or spell the lessons on the boards, and many the scripture lessons, repeat the tables in arithmetic, add, substract, and multiply on the numeration frame, and on the lesson boards; are well acquainted with scripture history, from the creation to the Exodus of the children of Israel; the birth, and part of the history of Christ; the ten commandments, and many hymns and moral songs, which they repeat and sing; they have some knowledge of the natural history of animals, illustrated by pictures; analyze various moral lessons, and begin to have some knowledge of grammar; all which instruction is illustrated by sensible objects and actions.

It is with peculiar satisfaction they report the approbation of the Committee of the Public School Society, who have visited their School, and made such honourable mention of their mode of instruction to their Society, that a school, on the same plan, will shortly be opened in Public School, No. 10, and placed under the motherly care of a committee from this society. They have also the pleasure to state, that letters, requesting information on the subject of infant education, have been received from various parts, and infant schools are now either contemplated or in actual operation, in Philadelphia, Troy, Albany, Boston, Norfolk, Va., Niagara, U. C., and in several parts of Connecticut. Many strangers visit the school to gain information, with a view to establish them when they return to their respective homes.

The best arguments, we think, in favour of infant schools, will prove to be those which present experiments are furnishing. Opposition to these establishments cannot long exist, in the face of facts such as every observer may witness in these schools. We hope they will multiply as rapidly as they are required, and long continue to offer to the children of all classes of the community the great boon of a useful early education. We should regret their being restricted to any condition in life. They offer benefits highly desirable to all,—healthful exercise, useful

* April 19, 1828, 130 to 150—60.

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occupation, innocent enjoyment, and good instruction. They come to the aid of mothers in their arduous charge, and where maternal care is wanting, they do much towards supplying it. They lay in season the foundation of elementary discipline and moral improvement, and contribute effectually to form that character which, when it becomes general, constitutes the true and permanent prosperity of nations.

INTELLIGENCE.

ELIZABETH FEMALE ACADEMY, WASHINGTON, MISSISSIPPI.

Extracts from the Annual Report of the Principal, Mrs. Caroline M. Thayer.

Much attention has been paid to exercise and regimen; especially by our excellent president, whose untiring care cannot be too highly appreciated. Believing that a healthy development of the physical powers is an important part of education, we have encouraged the young ladies under our care to take that kind and degree of exercise which experience and philosophy have united to recommend. Early rising is enforced upon all, and, in summer, the young ladies are accustomed to walk before sunrise, and the varied and romantic scenery which surrounds us, renders our morning walks not only healthful, but delightfully pleasant.

I have received much assistance, in the discharge of my various responsible duties, by the timely visits of ladies appointed by your honourable board, as 'acting patronesses,' of the institution. The state of the dormitories, the dress and deportment of the young ladies; and the general economy of the steward's department have been objects of their especial attention. Under their active and vigilant superintendence, habits of order and neatness are acquired, which are indispensable in the female character.

In assigning rank no regard is paid to seniority; and promotions are made after a strict examination on previous studies. A brief view of the qualifications required to attain a respectable standing in the respective sections will enable you to judge of the progress and character of the school.

Junior Class.—2d Section. Qualifications required in this section are—reading with ease and propriety; some facility in mental arithmetic, on the plan of Colburn; ability to perform the simpler operations of written arithmetic, writing; general outline of geography, and a ready use of maps.

1st Section. Ready application of the primary rules of arithmetic, with an accurate knowledge of the necessary tables; etymology; general and particular geography; some facility in drawing maps from memory, and history of the United States.

Senior Class.—3d Section. The rules of syntax; some facility in parsing; arithmetic; to include simple proportion, with its ready application to bills and accounts; accurate and minute knowledge of modern geography; linear drawing begun.

2d Section. Astronomy and natural philosophy begun; Blairs lectures on rhetoric; principles of linear drawing, and projecting maps; principles of civ-

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il government, and constitution and history of the United States; ancient geography begun.

1st Section. Accurate and minute knowledge of government, of ancient and modern geography; Blair's Lectures; Mrs. Bryan's conversations on natural philosophy; general outline of ancient history; arithmetic, to include the extraction of roots and fractions; general knowledge of the principles of botany on the Linnean system of classification; chemistry and intellectual philosophy begun.

The whole number who have entered the several classes during the year is 107. The number who have left the school is 49; of these, 13 were members of the first section. Six have studied the four first books of Euclid, and pursued with success all the required studies of their class, together with French and Latin which are permitted exercises. The other seven maintained a respectable standing in their section. Eleven were members of the second section, and twenty five were advanced no farther than the junior class. Of the fifty eight who remain in school, forty are members of the senior class, sixteen in the first, thirteen in the second, and eleven in the third section. A part of the first section study Euclid's Elements, and the whole are engaged in chemistry, natural, moral, and intellectual philosophy, and a general review of former studies. There is at present no Latin class. In the French ten have advanced so far as to be able to read and translate.—*New-York Christian Advocate.*

[The excellent remarks on the spirit and effects of mutual instruction we shall transcribe at length, in another number.]

ACADEMIES IN NEW-YORK.

From the late report of the Regents of the New-York University, it appears that forty five incorporated Academies, subject to their visitation, have 3050 students, of whom 1240 pursued classical studies, or the highest branches of English education, or both, for six months of the last year. The sum of $10,000 from the literary fund, was distributed to these Academies, in proportion to the number of students in each, of the class above described.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

At a meeting of the Board of Overseers of the University, (May 8th,) the Corporation reported the resignation of the President, and according to usage asked the advice of the Board. The overseers in reply advised the Corporation to proceed to make choice of a president, to supply the vacancy, as soon as may be. A vote passed the board unanimously, expressing, their high sense of the services of the late President.

PUBLIC LATIN SCHOOL OF BOSTON.

Mr. Benjamin A. Gould having resigned the charge of this institution, Mr. Leverett has been appointed to the office of Master.

Mr. Gould's valuable services to classical education we have had occasion

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INTELLIGENCE.

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ELIZABETH FEMAL

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DEMY, WILBRAHAM, MASS.

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, 65 feet long by 35 wide, three stories in height, including
ry—eligibly situated in a healthy and retired town, ten miles
ut river. In June, 1826, a boarding house was opened with
ommodations, including some lodging rooms in the Academy, for
ders. Here the students have been accommodated with comfort-
g, lodging, washing, fuel, lights, &c. at about $70 per annum, and
red, at all times, in school and out, to be under the immediate guar-
of the officers of the Institution. That this guardianship may be exer-
th the most care over the young, the lads, of from 10 to 14 years of
lodged together in a large hall, under the care of one, whose business
oversee them at all times, when out of school, regulate their sports, and
over their conduct with a fatherly care. The others are lodged gener-
two a room in the apartments provided for them. Under such a super-
there is little room for improper conduct—and, with suitable instruc-
there is every advantage for training up youth in the way they should go.
morals of the scholars, therefore, are good, and must unavoidably continue
generally so long as the present course of discipline is maintained. And
is and ever has been an object of the first importance in the minds of the

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direction and review of the regular teachers, and it every scholar is *liable* to be called upon to hear found to be no detriment to their advancement same time, leads them into habits of accurate , readiness and correctness of communica- study, are not so readily gained. , in which all the important branches in regular classes advancing in due om the lower to the higher. In nguages will be taught in a sep- be added, whenever the calls the Trustees to employ a

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oom in which various periodicals, lite- re taken for the use of the scholars. ets, during the last session, passed a resolve, usettled land to the Wesleyan Academy at Wil- sed both branches of the legislature with an una- ging to the friends of the academy. Such acts of liberali- ral institutions, are truly honourable to any legislative body, u in intellectual gold, and lasting benefit rendered to society.— d.

ST. MARY'S COLLEGE, BALTIMORE.

[The following intelligence regarding this reputable institution is extracted from an article in Walsh's Gazette.]

St. Mary's College enjoys the advantages of a most healthy and pleasant situation, in the north western part of the city of Baltimore. The buildings are sufficient for the accommodation of one hundred and fifty boarders, and afford the facility of appropriating a separate room to each class of the various literary departments. The halls for meals, study and recreation, are spacious: the dormitories airy, and divided into separate alcoves, one for each pupil. The grounds, for the recreation of the students, are extensive and adorned with trees.

In the month of January, 1805, this institution was raised to the rank of a University by the legislature of Maryland, and empowered to hold public commencements, and to admit any of its students to any degree or degrees in any of the faculties, arts and sciences, and liberal professions, which are usually permitted to be conferred in any Colleges or Universities, in America or Europe. It is supplied with a complete Philosophical and Chemical apparatus. The library consists of about 10,000 volumes.

Course of Instruction.

The Hebrew, Greek, Latin, English, French and Spanish Languages; Poetry, Rhetoric, Natural and Moral Philosophy; a complete course of Mathematics, with practical applications to Mensuration, Surveying, Drawing Maps

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to speak of, in mentioning the excellent editions of several authors, which he has revised and superintended, and which prove so useful and acceptable in classical seminaries throughout the country. His laborious and successful exertions in the duties of instruction have long been highly appreciated; and he retires from the arduous duties of his office with the esteem and the gratitude of the community. His successor enters on his labours with all the benefit of his previous experience in teaching in the same school, and with high expectations on the part of the public founded on his past success.

LONDON UNIVERSITY.

A meeting of the proprietors of the London University, was held on the 27th of February. It appears by the report of the council, that the affairs of the institution are in a very prosperous condition, the funds obtained by subscription having proved sufficient to place the scheme in operation, and even to supply the salaries of the professors for a few years, in case the fees from the pupils should prove insufficient. The buildings, it is thought, will be completed and the instruction commenced on the ensuing October. The plan of a botanical garden has been abandoned, and in respect to anatomical instruction it is proposed to provide for it by instituting an hospital to be placed under the direction of the University, and a subscription has been commenced for that object. The expenditures, including the purchase of land, erection of buildings, &c., have amounted to about £58,000, the funds subscribed to £71,000, leaving a balance on hand of £13,000.

WESLEYAN ACADEMY, WILBRAHAM, MASS.

The Wesleyan Academy in Wilbraham, Mass. was opened in Nov. 1825; since which time it has had a gradual increase of scholars till it numbers, as may be seen by the catalogue of last autumn, 118. The Academy edifice is a good brick building, 65 feet long by 35 wide, three stories in height, including the basement story—eligibly situated in a healthy and retired town, ten miles east of Connecticut river. In June, 1826, a boarding house was opened with rooms and accommodations, including some lodging rooms in the Academy, for 70 or 80 boarders. Here the students have been accommodated with comfortable boarding, lodging, washing, fuel, lights, &c. at about $70 per annum, and are considered, at all times, in school and out, to be under the immediate guardianship of the officers of the Institution. That this guardianship may be exercised with the most care over the young, the lads, of from 10 to 14 years of age, are lodged together in a large hall, under the care of one, whose business it is to oversee them at all times, when out of school, regulate their sports, and watch over their conduct with a fatherly care. The others are lodged generally two a room in the apartments provided for them. Under such a supervision there is little room for improper conduct—and, with suitable instruction, there is every advantage for training up youth in the way they should go. The morals of the scholars, therefore, are good, and must unavoidably continue good generally so long as the present course of discipline is maintained. And this is and ever has been an object of the first importance in the minds of the Trustees and officers of this institution.

The government and instruction of the school are partially *monitorial;* that is, certain persons, are selected by the officers to attend the recitation of certain

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classes, under the general direction and review of the regular teachers, and it is a standing regulation that every scholar is *liable* to be called upon to hear one recitation in a day. This is found to be no detriment to their advancement in their own studies; and, at the same time, leads them into habits of accurate thinking, quickness of apprehension, readiness and correctness of communication which, in the ordinary course of study, are not so readily gained.

A regular course of study is preparing, in which all the important branches of an English education are to be taught in regular classes advancing in due order through a suitable number of years from the lower to the higher. In the meantime the Latin, Greek, and French languages will be taught in a separate department,—and to these the Spanish will be added, whenever the calls for it and the funds of the institution will authorize the Trustees to employ a teacher in that language.

Connected with the institution is a small farm, of about 50 acres, on which, in their hours of relaxation and amusement, the students are pleasantly and profitably employed in horticulture and agriculture; and it is the design of the Trustees, whenever their funds will permit, to connect with the institution some mechanical branches.

In the boarding house is a reading room in which various periodicals, literary, political, moral, and religious, are taken for the use of the scholars.

The legislature of Massachusets, during the last session, passed a resolve, granting half a township of unsettled land to the Wesleyan Academy at Wilbraham. This resolve passed both branches of the legislature with an unanimity highly encouraging to the friends of the academy. Such acts of liberality to literary and moral institutions, are truly honourable to any legislative body, and will be repaid in intellectual gold, and lasting benefit rendered to society.—*Zion's Herald.*

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In the month of January, 1805, this institution was raised to the rank of a University by the legislature of Maryland, and empowered to hold public commencements, and to admit any of its students to any degree or degrees in any of the faculties, arts and sciences, and liberal professions, which are usually permitted to be conferred in any Colleges or Universities, in America or Europe. It is supplied with a complete Philosophical and Chemical apparatus. The library consists of about 10,000 volumes.

Course of Instruction.

The Hebrew, Greek, Latin, English, French and Spanish Languages; Poetry, Rhetoric, Natural and Moral Philosophy; a complete course of Mathematics, with practical applications to Mensuration, Surveying, Drawing Maps

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and Plans, for which operation the College is furnished with all necessary instruments; Geography, and the use of the Globes; Writing, Book-keeping, Music, Drawing, and Dancing.

The Officers are

Rev. E. Damphoux, S. T. D., President, Professor of Mathematics. Rev. S. Eccleston, A. M., Vice President, Professor of Rhetoric. Rev. L. Deluol, S. T. D., Professor of M. Philosophy and Hebrew. Rev. M. F. Wheeler, A. M., Professor of N. Philosophy and Greek. Rev. John J. Chanche, Professor of Latin. Rev. James Joubert, Professor of French. James Sega, LL. D., Professor of Spanish.

Tutors.

In the Mathematical and Classical departments; Rev. John Randanne, Rev. Alexius J. Elder, Rev. Francis L'Homme, Charles White, A. M., Edward Knight, A. M., John Hoskyns, A. B.;—Michael P. Galligher, Francis G. Forster, Writing;—John Nenninger, Patrick Kelly, Music;—Samuel Smith, Drawing.

Graduation in the Faculty of Arts.

The course required for the Degree of Arts, comprehends: Mathematics, as far as Conic Sections, inclusively; Geography; the Greek and Latin languages; Rhetoric; Moral and Natural Philosophy. The candidates shall undergo all examinations that will take place during their stay at the College. The last year, they shall write and deliver a speech, on a literary, scientific, or moral subject, a copy of which shall be left to the College.

Plan of Studies.

For those pupils who begin their classical education, and intend to apply to all the branches taught in the College.

First year.—6th Latin; Gould's Grammar, Historia Sacra. 5th, French; Reading, and Wanostrocht's Grammar. 4th, English; Introduction to the English Reader, Murray's Grammar abridged. 6th, Geography, and Writing.

Second Year.—5th, Latin; Historia Sacra continued, Historia Romana. 4th, French; Grammar continued, translations from French into English, Fables de la Fontaine. 3d, English; Grammar continued, Murray's English Reader, Practical Arithmetic, Jess's Arithmetic; 5th, Geography; Writing continued.

Third year.—4th, Latin; Historia Romana continued, Phædrus. 3d, French; Grammar continued, translations from English into French, Recueil Choisi. 2d, English; Murray's large Grammar, and Exercises, Sequel to the English Reader; Rational Arithmetic, Lacroix's Arithmetic. 4th, Geography, Writing continued.

Fourth year.—3d, Latin; Nepos, Justin, Cæsar, Curtius, &c., Ovid, Virgil, Latin Prosody. 4th, Greek; Burnouf's Grammar, Æsop, Hierocles, &c. 2d, French; translations continued, Telemaque, Odes de J. B. Rousseau, &c. 1st, English; Murray's Grammar and Criticism, Composition. Algebra; Lacroix's Algebra. 3d, Geography, Writing continued.

Fifth year.—Latin Poetry; Livy, Sallust, Cicero, Ovid and Virgil continued, &c., Latin Versification. 3d, Greek; Burnouf's Grammar continued, Lucian, Xenophon, &c. 1st, French; French Composition, L'Art Poetique, La Henriade, &c. Geometry; Legendre's Geometry. 2d, Spanish; Cubi's Grammar, Estractos de Almeyda, Isla, Yriarte. Ercilla. 2d, Geography, Writing continued.

Sixth year.—Latin Literature; Cicero and Livy continued, Tacitus, Suetonius, Paterculus, Quintilian, &c., Horace, Juvenal, Persius, Lucan, Lucretius,

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Seneca, Terence, &c., Latin Composition. 2d, Greek; Xenophon continued, Isocrates, Hesiod, Theocritus, Bion, Moschus, Prosody. 1st, Class of Mathematics; Trignometry, Conic Sections, Diff. and Integ. Calculus, Mechanics. 1st, Spanish; Translations and Compositions, Estractos de Cervantes, Solis, Feijoo, &c., Melendes Valdes, F. de Leon, &c. 1st, Year of Elocution; Enfield's Speaker, &c. 1st Geography.

Seventh year.—Moral Philosophy, including Logic, Metaphysics, and Ethics. Natural Philosophy, including at least Pneumatics, Electricity, Galvanism, Chemistry, Optics, and Astronomy. 1st, Greek; Plato, Æschines, Demosthenes, Longinus, Theophrastus, Homer, Sophocles, Euripides, &c. Rhetoric, including Precepts, Composition, and Critical Examination of Authors; Textbook, Blair's Lectures; 2d Year of Elocution; Walker's Elocution.

In teaching the Languages, great care is taken to inculcate the rules of Grammar and Syntax, and to render the students familiar with their application. The intercourse of American, French, and Spanish pupils, establishes an interchange of the three languages equally advantageous to all.

Nothing is omitted to kindle in every student a vivid emulation both for mental improvement, and moral excellence. The principal means used to accomplish this object, are weekly accounts given to the President by the Professors and Teachers, and read before all the students; semi-annual reports sent to the parents; monthly private examinations of the classes; a yearly public examination, and distribution of Premiums.—Should these incitements prove ineffectual, coercive measures would be resorted to.

Discipline, on which both moral and scientific improvements must ultimately rest, claims peculiar attention. The punctual observance of the regulations, and, above all, a due regard for decency, propriety, and morality, are enforced chiefly by instruction and persuasion. Any flagrant offence against these leading features of good education, is repressed with proper severity, and incorrigibleness must end in expulsion.

The *Diet* is wholesome and abundant. The sick are attended and nursed with punctuality and vigilance. Due attention is had to cleanliness in the Refectory, Dormitories, &c.; likewise to the dress and persons of the students, particularly the younger.

Terms for Boarders and half Boarders.

Boarding per annum, $140; half-boarding per annum, $70; tuition for all the branches comprised in the course except music, drawing, and dancing, per annum, $60: payable half yearly in advance.

Day Scholars.

Tuition, per annum, $60, payable quarterly. Entrance, $5.
Washing, mending, and attendance in sickness are extra expenses.

NEW-YORK HIGH SCHOOL.

Extracts from the Report of the Committee appointed by the Board of Trustees to examine the Senior Department of the School.

The Committee appointed by the Trustees of the High School Society, to examine the Senior Department of the Boys' School, report,—

That, from the 18th of February to the 13th of March, they met fourteen times on the subject of their appointment, and at some of these meetings spent at least three hours.

They commenced their labours without giving notice of their appointment

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to the Principals and pupils, until the very moment when they entered the Department to commence the examination.

Though some of the boys study a considerable proportion of the fourteen branches that are taught in the Senior Department, and the Committee felt disposed to extend the scrutiny of the intellectual progress of the school still farther than they have done, yet they went far enough to convince themselves of the high qualifications of the teachers, and the admirable proficiency of the pupils.

Having inspected not less than thirty classes consisting of from four to thirty six students each, and these occasionally drawn out from the whole body, as the whole number engaged with the same studies, and having personally attended, in some degree, to every boy in this division of the High School, the Committee are enabled to report, conscientiously, that this department, submitted to their examination, is in a state which may justly excite the pride and congratulations of this board.

The plan probably first adopted in this institution, of constantly preparing and advancing a double set of monitors, and so arranging the affairs, and husbanding the time and resources of the school, as to bring, in due season, every boy to the highest standing of which he is capable, and to cause every scholar regularly to pass under the skilful eye and immediate influence of the Principals, deserves the warmest commendation.

The promptness of the boys in replying to the questions proposed by the Committee, the readiness and facility with which they demonstrated the subjects submitted to them, the difference and independence observable in their endeavours to come to a correct conclusion, gave the Committee the most pleasing proofs of the fact, that these pupils do not answer by rote, but understandingly, knowingly, and comprehending the various subjects on which they were examined; their minds, taking hold of their studies, and turning to the most profitable account the excellent opportunities they enjoy in this department, in which the Committee have seen undeniable evidence of great intellectual wealth, as it regards the teacher and learner. And surely, on fair inspection, every one will find, that those who are here engaged in one of the most responsible offices in society, display an unusual ability to communicate knowledge and exhibit talent.

The Committee would be guilty of a dereliction of their important trust, did they not take this occasion to express the satisfaction they received from the courteous reception given them by the Principals, and the attention paid by them to the wishes and suggestions of the committee in every stage of their visit. The Committee were solicited by the Principals to conduct the examination in the most unreserved and rigid manner. This, and the absence of any thing like management and preconcert, on the part of these gentlemen, to make their pupils appear to the best advantage, facilitated the business of the committee, and enabled them to form an opinon, which, under other circumstances, could not so rapidly have been presented or taken as worthy of all confidence.

The Committee trust that they have discharged their duty; they now respectfully submit the result, and beg leave to offer the following Resolution.

Resolved, that the thanks of this Board be presented to Dr. Griscom and Mr. Barnes, the Principals of the Boys' High School, for the faithful, able, and zealous manner in which they are discharging their duties.

F. C. Schaeffer, Samuel Cowdrey, W. C. Rhinelander, *Committee.*

New-York, March 13th, 1828.

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SCHOOLS IN THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Schools have been established in every district throughout the whole group of islands, and so rapid has been the increase of the number of schools, and of learners, that we [the American missionaries] have not been able to keep an exact register of them all. From what have been registered, and from the number of the books distributed where a register has not yet been made, we estimate the present number belonging to the schools at about 25,000. For the instruction of these not less than 400 native teachers are employed, who, being able to read and write themselves, and apparently well disposed, are thought to be in no small degree useful to those under their charge.—*Miss. Herald.*

WALNUT GROVE SCHOOL, TROY, NEW-YORK.

[The exposition from which we give the following extracts, is another interesting evidence of the progress of improvement in education. The plan of instruction in this school, bespeaks extensive observation and peculiar skill on the part of the teacher, along with a generous interest in the happiness of his pupils, and an efficient and judicious care for their moral improvement. To some of our readers the description of the local situation of the seminary may seem unnecessarily minute. Attentive observation, however, will satisfy reflecting minds that the influence of natural scenery is in fine harmony with healthful activity and innocent happiness, and exerts a beneficial though silent influence on the whole mental character.]

Situation.

The building occupied by this school is the Mansion House of the late Mr. Vanderheyden, beautifully situated in the midst of a natural walnut grove, on one of those romantic eminences, which lie along the east side of Troy,—commanding a charming view of the town and its environs, Lansingburgh, Waterford and the Cohoes falls on the north; Albany, the Catskill mountains, &c. on the south. The elevation of its site and the foliage of its grove render it delightfully cool and healthful in the summer; and its proximity to the paved sidewalks of the town opens to it, at all seasons, the conveniences and advantages of the city. Standing at the head of Grand Division street, it has the town on one side and the country on the other,—a wide and handsome avenue leading from River street directly to it, but none passing by it;—thus being very easy of access, and at the same time so insulated and retired as to be free from all but voluntary intercourse with the population of the city. The grounds attached to the School embrace a piece of forest land and a range of hills, intersected by a very romantic little stream, which, in its course, forms a variety of beautiful cascades and furnishes a supply of pure water for bathing and other aquatic recreations. Such walks, also, taken as they are at an early hour and constituting a part of the stated exercises of the school, furnish admirable opportunities for exciting and cherishing in the boys a taste for Botany, Mineralogy, and other natural sciences.

In addition to these natural and local advantages, the place has been improved and fitted up expressly for the school. The immediate inclosure for play-grounds, in the midst of which stands the school, contains three or four acres surrounded by a high picket fence and well shaded with thrifty young trees. A small gymnasium has been prepared under cover for exercise and recreation in wet and cold weather; and a more extensive one for summer use,

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embracing a great variety of exercises under the shade of the grove, is in a state of forwardness and will soon be completed Attached to the premises are vegetable and flower gardens, in which the boys are encouraged to promote their health and cultivate their taste by rearing flowers and useful plants. Separate parcels of ground are allotted to each pupil and premiums awarded to those who discover the greatest diligence and skill. At the close of every season, the products of their gardens will be appraised and the amount applied to missionary or other charitable uses, to be designated by the boys themselves.

Plan.

This school is designed for boys only, and varies in number from twenty to thirty. It is considered well filled with twenty five, and can in no case receive more than thirty at any one term.

Long as the comparative advantages of a public and a private education have been the theme of able and animated discussion, the question still remains undecided. Both sides have been well sustained, and each claims peculiar advantages, and prefers serious objections against the other. By those who are sensible of those claims, and who, at the same time, wish to avoid these objections, it has been proposed to take a middle course, combining the advantages of both. It is believed, that the best plan ever yet devised for the entire education of boys from six to sixteen years of age, is that where a person, properly qualified and disengaged from all other pursuits, employs himself and proper assistants wholly in the care and instruction of a competent number of boys, placed in his own house and under his own eye. Such is the plan of Walnut Grove School, and on this plan it has been in successful operation for two years. But it is now designed to give it a more peculiar character—to limit it not only to a competent number of boys from good families and unexceptionable moral habits, but to those who are of nearly the same age, who are pursuing the same course of studies, who will submit to the same strict discipline and the same steady application to their stated employments. It is designed to give the school more of the Spartan character than, it is believed, has yet been attempted in this country, or perhaps in modern times. It is designed, by systematic exercises both mental and corporeal, early commenced and steadily pursued, to establish habits of untiring activity and unshrinking resolution—to spread through the school that bodily health and mental vigour, which shall render idleness irksome and exertion delightful—which shall impel the boys to surmount with a light step and a cheerful heart the difficulties in their way to usefulness and eminence.

Those who are accustomed to see youth as they are usually found in schools, will probably think this scheme visionary and romantic; but the history of man and happily some experiments already made in this school sufficiently prove, that with certain limitations necessarily resulting from the present state of society, all this is quite practicable. The plan at any rate is deemed worth a fair experiment, since even partial success might in these days, be thought almost miraculous; and the appeal is made with confidence to reflecting and judicious parents, whose views coincide with the plan here offered and who wish to have their sons trained up in the way they *should go*.

As much reliance is placed upon the force of early and continued habit, and upon excluding the influence of examples at variance with our own, no half-way compliances—nothing short of a full conformity with all our regulations can be tolerated. A single instance of nonconformity would soon produce its fellow, and gradually work the ruin of all our plans. The Spartan youth could not have been retained in the institutions of Lycurgus, if foreigners had been permitted to reside among them; nor can the pupils of any school be kept in the steady and cheerful obedience of its rules, while those rules are known to bend occasionally to the circumstances or the requirements of particular individuals. Where no dispensations *can* be granted, none—it is hoped—will be solicited or expected.

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Again, it is agreed on all hands, that the habits which a boy forms at school are far more important than his progress in the sciences; and teachers are expected to form the manners, to guard the morals, to fashion and fix the habits of their pupils so as to enable them to combat successfully the temptations and seductions of a vicious world. But teachers must be expected to reason like other men; and what man of sense can think it worth his while, or can possibly feel any encouragement to take especial pains in forming a boy's habits, when he knows or has reason to presume, that the lapse of a few weeks will render all his plans abortive, and all his labours useless, by removing the boy from his care. Whatever others may promise or profess to feel, I frankly confess I do not like to waste my efforts on subjects so hopeless—nor can I assume the responsibility of habits formed without the sphere of my control. The Spartan virtue was not the growth of two or three months, nor even two or three years—their system commenced from the cradle, and ended when they became men—men in mind as well as body; nor can good habits be matured, or a thorough systematic education be acquired by those who are flirted about from school to school, or who are part of the time sent to school and part of the time permitted to loiter about in idleness at home. Men do not gather crops from neglected fields, nor must parents expect their children to be virtuous without care and cultivation. To such as may think proper to place their sons or wards at this school with that constancy and for that length of time which are essential to the cultivation and maturity of good habits, and who also will not forget to favour me with the important cooperation of their own influence and advice—to such I pledge my untiring assiduity to satisfy all reasonable expectations. Such may likewise feel perfectly assured, that, while at the Grove, their boys shall certainly be kept from the influence of improper company and vicious example. No person of loose habits or dangerous principles, shall be permitted to remain here in any capacity, either as teacher, pupil, or domestic.

Moreover, the injunction, 'Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it holy,' will be regarded not only as the surest foundation and best support of all good habits, but as imposing an imperative duty not to spend that day in idleness or amusements. The principal of this school cannot consent, that the youth confided to his care shall be left to disregard a precept so plain and important. He would consider his trust very imperfectly executed and their education not only unfinished but fundamentally wrong, were the cultivation of the moral principle and religious instruction to be neglected. In a christian country, the principles of the christian religion certainly should, and in this school they certainly will form a prominent part in the system of education. The pupils will therefore be required to attend regularly every Sabbath, (unless when detained by ill health,) the public services at some church in this city—which one, is left to the direction of their parents. And when not at church, their time must be diligently employed in getting their Sunday lessons and in attending the recitations and lectures in the school room. Their first exercise every morning, and their last every evening, will be devotional—reading a portion of the scriptures, and prayers. And it is earnestly intended, that—with Divine assistance—no opportunity shall be suffered to pass unimproved, to cultivate in them a tender conscience, a quiet and humble spirit, a charitable disposition, a sense of their accountability—a willingness to do unto others as they would have others do unto them.

Discipline.

In the estimation of those who are acquainted with the usual state of large boarding schools, where many of the pupils are more or less not only under the instruction but also under the government of inexperienced and unskilful assistants; the strictly parental and domestic character of this school will not be considered unimportant. The whole school forms but one family; the principal, *in loco parentis*, exercises not merely a general superintendence, but

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has the sole and immediate government of all the pupils; assembles them at the same table with himself for their meals, and in the same room with himself for instruction, and attends them personally in their amusements and exercises out of school. In teaching the French and Spanish languages, in drawing, penmanship and some other branches, assistants are employed, but they are employed as *assistants*, not as *substitutes* for the principal; their lessons and lectures are all given in his presence and under his direction, without their having any share whatever in the government and discipline of the school.

Respecting the kind and character of the discipline adopted here, it is our unshaken resolution to preserve good order and strict subordination, and to secure uniform and unhesitating obedience, at all events—'mildly, if we *can*—forcibly, if we *must*.' The infliction of corporal punishment is considered a painful task, and never resorted to, till other expedients have failed; but we do not hesitate to declare, that we think it better to employ the rod than to spoil the child; and when it is employed, it will not be laid aside till the rebellious spirit which drew it forth, is effectually quelled. Moreover, inasmuch as parents should never place their children under the care of a teacher, in whose discretion they have not entire and implicit confidence, they cannot be permitted to interfere at all in the management of such as they do place here, except by their advice.

In all cases, it will be our constant endeavour, invoking and relying upon the assistance of Him, in whose hands are the wills and affections of all—so to treat the children who shall be confided to our care, as we think a father ought to treat his own offspring—so to blend dignity with affection, and authority with gentleness, that the boys may feel the same ease and freedom with us, which they should feel in the society of their parents and family friends at home. Such a system of government is not only the most natural and reasonable, but also the most easy, and on every account the most desirable.

Age and Acquirements.

No pupil can be admitted into this school under six years of age, nor any over twelve, without the most satisfactory evidence of having been brought up in good habits. And as such habits can hardly be commenced too early, the principal of this school would be gratified if those parents who may wish him to educate their sons, would place them under his care as soon (after six) as they can read fluently. In a separate room of the same building and under my direction, is attached a select primary school, where boys may be received at three or four years and continued, if desired, till they have attained the age of eight years. This school is considered as preparatory to the classical, and as far as practicable a correspondent course of instruction and treatment is pursued.

Classification.

During the first week in each Term, the pupils will be divided into classes according to their age and acquirements. There will be three classes in Greek, and three—at most four, in Latin. The boys must all be arranged in one or other of these classes, and no other than the regular class recitations will be attended to during the school hours.

This rule, it is anticipated, may encounter some objections, arising from the fluctuating state of our schools; but past experience has rendered it imperative. The principal of this school, from a desire to gratify individual wishes, has found his classes so numerous, and consequently his time so divided as to render it impossible for him to afford those explanations which are essential to the due improvement of the pupils. Every lesson requires, in reciting and explaining, from twenty to thirty minutes; and nothing is better calculated to induce careless habits in studying, and to make superficial scholars, than the hurried manner in which recitations are unavoidably passed over in our acade-

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mies and public schools. To remedy this evil the present classification has been adopted, and therefore must be strictly adhered to.

The mornings will be devoted to the study of the languages,—the afternoons to arithmetic, geography, history, and other English branches. The boys will all be required to study English grammar more or less critically according to their age and other acquirements. They will also be required, when sufficiently advanced, to study two other languages—either Greek and Latin, or French and Spanish, at the option of their parents; or, if preferred, they may study one of the ancient and one of the modern languages,—and, when sufficiently advanced, they may study both the ancient and modern.

The first three weeks of each Term will be spent,—the mornings in recitations in the grammars and exercises of the languages designed to be pursued during the remainder of the Term,—and the afternoons in writing and in acquiring the general principles of drawing. These will be the only lessons given in writing, and the only ones in drawing, except to such of the larger boys as may have time for extra lessons in that branch. As these preparatory lessons will be indispensable to their success in the subsequent course of studies, no pupils can, for obvious reasons, be received after the first week in the term, unless prepared to sustain a critical examination, in the lessons which shall have been recited by the classes they may wish to join.

Class Books.

As some novelties will be found in the list of books adopted for the classes in this school, it may not be amiss to say a word or two in their defence. The younger lads, from six to ten years of age, who are just commencing their classical labours and whose progress must necessarily be comparatively slow, irksome, and difficult, will be furnished with every proper assistance to cheer, enlighten and facilitate their advances. The plan of Mons. Bolmar, of the Philadelphia High School, in teaching French, has been tried with young beginners in this school, with happy success. As there does not appear any sufficient reason, why the same plan would not be attended with the like success in teaching other languages, it is concluded to adopt that plan, whenever the proper books can be obtained, with the younger pupils in Greek and Latin. But when a lad has read enough in any language to have attained a considerable *copia verborum*, and especially when he has arrived at an age of sufficient maturity to reason and investigate for himself—then to have a translation lying before him while getting his lesson, may indeed save him the trouble of consulting his dictionary and enable him to read more of an author in a given time,—but it is believed to be equally certain, that it will make a superficial scholar and an indolent boy.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Poetry for Schools, designed for Reading and Recitations. The whole selected from the best Poets in the English language. By the author of American Popular Lessons. New-York. White, Gallagher, & White. 1828. 12mo. pp. 396.

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To make a good selection of practical readings is by no means easy; and the task becomes still more difficult, when attempted in the form of a school book. The finest strains of poetry become very soon the common property of compilers, and are copied so often as to be absolutely hackneyed. To give any degree of originality to a selection, the editor must have recourse sometimes to passages that have been overlooked, or which have not been immediately and universally admired.

With these hindrances to success the author of the above mentioned volume has had to struggle; but she has acquitted herself very creditably to her taste and discernment. In a few instances, however, we could have wished, that the selection had been such as to substitute pieces of a gentler and more attractive character for those whose chief merit is force or passion.

The explanatory introductions to the various extracts are a prominent and an excellent feature of this compilation. They serve to show that a vast deal of useful information and of moral instruction may be blended with the reading of poetry; and they furnish teachers with a good model for conducting such lessons when drawn from other sources. This volume, we think, will prove an excellent reading book, as it furnishes not only a good selection of pieces, but renders these highly intrresting; and this is the readiest and the surest way to produce an animated, distinct, and natural elocution. The book thus acquires an additional value, as conducing to one of the finest and most useful, though among the rarest accomplishments of the female sex.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Child's Botany; with illustrative Engravings. S. G. Goodrich. Boston. 1828. 18mo. pp. 115.

It is objected to some of the modern facilities for imparting instruction, that they produce a premature application of the mind, and set the little learner a thinking when it would be better as well as more natural for him to be at play.

This juvenile Botany takes a middle course, and furnishes a moderate series of mental exercise, blended with active recreation and sedentary amusement. It will prove, we think, a favourite volume with mothers; as it requires from them occasional assistance as well as superintendence, and does not go deeper into the science than, with the aid of the book, an intelligent mother easily may.

Works of this class we think peculiarly valuable: they have an excellent mental tendency; they bring the senses into frequent and gentle action; they call for the exercise of attention and discrimination; they improve the memory by constant use; and they cultivate taste and imagination by an early acquaintance with nature in its most beautiful forms. Publications such as this would serve to vary and enliven elementary instruction in all schools for young children; but they seem peculiarly adapted to the system introduced in infant schools.

The Child's Botany is, as nearly possible, what its title indicates,—a treatise on this subject, rendered perfectly familiar, and brought down even to the capacities of young children. In making use of the work with very young learners, some of the lessons in classification and arrangement will, no doubt, have to be postponed till a second or third course. Much improvement as well as gratification will be derived, however, from the explanations in the early part of the book, and especially from the attempts to procure and preserve specimens of the various sorts of plants which are accessible to children in their daily or occasional walks.

The engravings illustrative of the various lessons are exceedingly neat and accurate.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

[For the following article we are indebted to the same writer from whom we received that on primary education, which occurs at page 26 of the first No. of the Journal for the present year. These observations will be found, we think, directly applicable to most elementary schools in their existing condition, and conducive to their practical improvement.]

In this article we propose to suggest *a few methods by which elementary instruction may be given to the young*. We believe there are many of those very useful members of the community, the teachers of primary schools, who daily feel the responsibleness of their profession, are deeply interested in the rising welfare of their pupils, and sincerely disposed to adopt any judicious means which shall issue in their improvement. Possessing sufficient independence of mind to think for themselves, and to estimate things by their intrinsic utility, they are prepared to receive any suggestions which aim at the intellectual and moral advancement of the rising generation; and they are aware that it is the fate of every thing valuable and interesting in the progress of mind, and the improvement of society, to be ushered into the world under the name of innovation, and regarded as unnecessary and chimerical.

Before entering, however, upon the direct subject of this article, we would state *the general principles* by which, we conceive, instructers should be guided in the discharge of their high and peculiar duties.

Instruction should be *spontaneous*; and those to whom the su-

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perintendence of the young is entrusted, should distinctly keep in view, as the surety of their success, that the minds upon which they are operating, not only for time, but for eternity, are endowed with internal principles of action, with self-guiding powers; and that their *chief* concern should be, to study those principles; to call forth those powers; and, by a natural adaptation of manner, and subject, and circumstance, to cooperate with them in the good work of progress. They should distinctly understand that the mind itself is the *chief* agent which is to achieve its own advancement; that all within it that is simple, and beautiful, and individual, should be preserved; and allowed to work out its way, in those pure channels which nature has traced; and that its symmetry and perfection, essentially depend upon that gradual, and equal, and spontaneous order of advancement, for which it is fitted by its all wise Author. Perfect liberty of action, is the thing which can preserve those individual and original features enstamped on every mind; and which it should be the duty and the delight of the teacher, to carry out in their *just* prominence and beauty; for by such varieties is human society sweetened and blessed.

Instruction should not only be spontaneous but *social*. Oral communion with the young, on the part of the instructer, is admirably suited to convey accurate knowledge to the inquiring intellect, and to throw a living interest around a subject, which written instruction can never impart; and is peculiarly favourable to the moral development of the heart; the great purpose and end, of all tuition.

Instruction should likewise be *rational*. Reason, the distinguishing attribute of our nature, should not be debased by the inculcations of authority, or the deceptions of prejudice and error. Truth is its natural element, and in this it should be allowed to dwell. As friendly companions, on whom the goodness of God has conferred the high privilege, instructers should accompany their pupils in the pursuit of truth; clothed with no other authority, assuming no other superiority than previous experience has given them.

We now proceed to describe some methods of tuition, by which a knowledge of the elements of common science, may be communicated to the young—confining our remarks to what is strictly *rudimental*.

In formal instruction, the first exercise in which the young learner should engage, is *Enunciation*. By this is meant, the full and accurate utterance of the elementary sounds of our lan-

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guage. And here exercises may be given, sometimes before the child knows the forms, or the names of the elementary sounds, as represented by letters addressed to the eye. The teacher may, in the first place, address the *ear*. He may enunciate the various sounds of our language; commencing with the simple or vowel sounds, which all children express with correctness, and proceeding to the complex, or consonant ones, which are but modifications of the others; and require the little observer to imitate the tones of his voice, fixing his attention on the teacher's mouth and lips. When the ear of his little auditor is able with precision to discriminate the several sounds of our language, and his voice to enunciate them clearly and distinctly, he may help the pupil to the next step in the natural gradation of advancement.

This is *Reading*, and differs from enunciation only in this:—the sounds instead of addressing the pupil's ear, through the voice of the teacher, here address his eye, in the form of significant signs. The eye, therefore, becomes the medium through which those sounds must be suggested to the ear, and uttered by the voice; and as the characters which represent those sounds can have no natural connexion with the sounds themselves, but are in this respect entirely arbitrary; this becomes a very difficult step for the little pupil to take, without the aid of some natural or associating appendage. Pictures, representing the subject of tuition, may therefore be used at this time, with great advantage, and certainly, with great pleasure, to the learner. Calling his little pupil to him, and pointing to him some object delineated by a picture, or perhaps occasionally the object itself in its tangible and visible form, with its name written near or upon it, the teacher may help him to enunciate its name, and to associate with that object its name, and likewise the general appearance of the letters by which that object, and its name, are represented to the eye—and by a succession of similar efforts the pupil may, in due time, acquire such knowledge of the names, and general appearance of their spelling, that whether the objects themselves, the pictures of them, or the word representing them, be presented, the same ideas will be suggested to his mind.—In like manner may the quality, appearance, and changes of objects be presented, and their names suggested to the young learner—gradually and almost imperceptibly, he may be led to read little sentences, containing the words which have thus been illustrated in pictures and actions, though, as yet he may be entirely ignorant of the name of a single letter—for he reads not

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by letters but by words, associated with the objects, appearances, or changes, which they represent.

However novel, and perhaps to some, impossible, it may seem for a child to read, not knowing the names of his letters, experience has proved that an acquaintance with their names as usually taught, is a serious hindrance in the first stages of his progress, and that the elements of reading may be taught with much greater facility, equal correctness, and certainly much greater satisfaction to the pupil (a point as we conceive of essential importance) by means of pictures in this way, than by the usual process of commencing with their letters. The connection between words and ideas, between ideas and things, on the common plan, is not made sufficiently familiar. The efforts of the young in learning to read, have been in a great measure unsuccessful. They have been accustomed to read for the sake of reading—to say words from a book, the meaning of which they did not understand, and thus to acquire the habit of reading without knowing that words, were representatives of ideas; and, that in order to read well, they must understand and feel the meaning of what they read. Children need few rules and directions to guide them in the utterance of sentiments and emotions which they understand and feel. Those very sentiments and emotions, when understood and felt, will become their most natural and proper rules.

When the child has been led, step by step, through the medium of cuts, and actions, to acquire a variety of words, which he has associated with the things they represent, and is able to read at sight little sentences in which these words are contained, he may be led forward to the next step in his progress—*to defining*. Let him always understand that the words which he is uttering have a distinct and definite meaning, and as far as he is able to understand let that meaning be given; whenever he reads a word let him catch the idea of which it is the representation. This will devolve great labor and no small share of ingenuity upon the teacher, but adherence to this direction is essentially important. The very business of education is to carry ideas to the young mind, and give them their proper names; it is not enough that the name alone is given, that is of little value, without the idea for which it stands; when his little pupil is reading let no word be passed by, without referring it to the object, appearance, or change, which it represents.

The next step in the pupil's progress, is *spelling*. This is simply analyzing the words of his reading lessons into their individ-

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ual letters, and giving each its proper name as it stands in connexion with others. The child will soon perceive the close connexion between this exercise and the preceding one of reading; that spelling is but deliberate reading. Instead of directing his attention to the word of his lesson as a whole, he now turns it to the contemplation of its parts or letters to each of which, from deliberate enunciation of the given word, he will endeavour to connect its distinct name or sound; and as he succeeds in his attempts, the teacher will present him with the letter by which that word is represented. Pronouncing a given word of his reading lesson, the instructer will require the child to enunciate it after him; in this way he will be able to analyze his reading lessons, and to connect with each letter in them, the alphabetic name; and thus by a succession of analytic exercises, obtain a knowledge of the various names and powers of the alphabet of our language.

He may next step forward to *Arithmetic*, and acquire a knowledge of *Notation* in the same manner as in spelling. The teacher may proceed to the combination of numbers, by placing in the hands of his pupils, any tangible substance, as corn, beans, or little cubes prepared for the purpose, which the little pupil may number; add—subtract—multiply and divide; as directed by the teacher. In this way, amusing and instructing employment, may be given, and the young mind led gradually to the apprehension of the abstract principles of this science. The teacher may then require mental calculations, and thus prepare the pupil for abstract operations on the slate, by means of parallel lines, or the common signs of number as the pupil's progress may allow. During the whole period of tuition which we have been describing, the child is supposed to have been in the possession of a slate and pencil, on which he has been employed in delineating the conceptions of his mind, and the expression of his lessons, in his own natural and simple way; and by this time has acquired such command of hand, and such conceptions of form, as to be able to make rude letters in the Roman character, intelligible at least to himself. He is therefore prepared to receive distinct instruction in the next step of his progress, which is *writing*.

He may now be requested to write, in his own favourite character the words of his reading lessons,—to number and define them, upon his slate. He may likewise write words from dictation, make the numerical figures, write little sentences pronounced to him by the teacher—whose ingenuity may usefully

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be taxed in devising ingenious expedients to please and instruct his little pupil, who will never be tired nor weary of using that desirable object, the slate. By this means the pupil may be gradually led forward to the introduction of the written characters; and with little formal instruction, he will imperceptibly acquire that style of writing best suited to his taste, and, without servile imitation, write in his own natural, original hand. At a suitable time he may transfer his efforts from the slate to paper, and achieve his future proficiency without formal tuition.

From writing he may be advanced to *Phraseology*. He may be made familiar with the elements of *Grammar* in the same natural and simple way. Referring the attention of his pupil to surrounding objects, the teacher may require him to write a list of their names on his slate—giving him an idea of one great class of words in our language. From things he may proceed to their qualities, appearances, kinds, &c. and require another list to which their grammatical name may be given so he may proceed to the changes and actions of things; and thus give an idea of another class of words—the little pupil may be required to analyze a given sentence into its distinct parts—to write sentences from his own mind, and by a variety of expedients, which an instructer who has gone into the full spirit of the plan we have partially unfolded, lead the mind to an acquaintance with the structure of our language, without much aid from a book.

It is thus, by making instruction a spontaneous, and social, and rational affair, that the incipient powers of the mind and heart, may be naturally, and harmoniously, and happily called into healthful and vigorous exercises, and by a gradual, and almost independent order of progress, resembling the processes of the natural world, be prepared to cooperate with kindred spirits in the cause of human improvement.

INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL EXAMPLE.

[The following observations are transcribed from Mr Blagden's Address mentioned in our last. We would again recommend this valuable pamphlet to the attention of every parent and teacher.]

The remark which I shall now make is one, which I could wish might be deeply and indelibly impressed upon the mind of

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every one who is a parent, or a guardian, or an instructer of children; or who, from any other circumstances, exerts an influence over the minds of the young. It is this:—the importance and influence of education in a village is strikingly manifest in the fact, that it imparts *just views of responsibility concerning the influence that is exerted over the young and rising generation.*

Man is the child of imitation; we copy the example of others from the cradle to the tomb; and the sway which the opinion of those around us exerts over our minds, in every step of our progress through this life, is vast and astonishing to one, who has ever attended to its influence, either over others, or over himself. This love of the praise, and consequent fear of the censure of our fellow men, deters us probably from the perpetration of many a crime, and the practice of many a virtue. This influence, vast as it is, even over the character of manhood, is peculiarly great in its power, and lasting in its effects, over the habits and character of children.

A child, like a plant, grows up, and expands, and flourishes, and blossoms, and bears fruit, accordingly as it shall be guided and nourished, and pruned, and guarded, by those to whose care it is submitted. Its little eye is ever open to behold, and its ear quick to hear, and its heart ready to receive the impressions, which every act and word of those who are around, cannot fail to make, in all that they perform or say in its observing presence. I venture to assert, that there is not one in this assembly, who, if he will reflect but a little upon his past existence, cannot recur to habits which may have cost him many a tear, and which originated in some casual circumstance of childhood. Some thoughtless act, sanctioned by the praise and the example of a parent, or guardian, or instructer, may lay the foundation of future happiness or misery, in the mind of the child who is beholding him: and when that parent, or guardian, or instructer shall have ceased to exist, there may be immortal minds still on the earth, for whose actions he shall be at least partly accountable, because they proceed from principles which were instilled by his example, and perhaps nourished by his care.

As is the parent, so, generally, is the child. A partial observer of human nature can tell, without much danger of mistake in the conclusion at which he arrives, in what manner parents speak of him at home, by the manner in which the children treat him in the street: and perhaps, connected with other facts to be taken into consideration, one of the best means of forming a correct opinion of the moral and intellectual character of a

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people, is to witness it, as it may be acted out before you in the character of their children. The parent, skilled in the workings of human nature, and experienced in his intercourse with with the world, may exhibit an appearance of courteonsness and correctness in public, which may never be exhibited in private. But the unsuspecting candour of the child, working out before you in innumerable little acts of unrestrained and almost ungovernable carelessness, will tell you most eloquently, in ten thousand instances, the true nature of those examples which he beholds and imitates, at home.

Now, the inhabitants of a well educated village, do, in some good degree, feel this to be the fact. And in a proportionable degree, they will be disposed to act as if they believed it. They will have learned enough of the influence of moral example over their own minds, to appreciate, to some extent, its immense influence over the minds of their children. Their knowledge of such a truth will, consequently, not fail to be remembered in the transactions, both of public and domestic life.

The leading men of such a village, as they decide from time to time upon the means of promoting public weal, will have an eye also, upon the public morals. And though a certain plan which may be laid before them, might possibly open a larger revenue of wealth to the parents of the place in which they live, they will not fail to ask the question ;—How will it probably affect the morals of our children? Will it present to them no vicious examples? Will it salute their ears with no pernicious words? Will it impress upon their minds no destroying sentiments? These will be motives which will naturally sway their conduct, and control all their decisions.

So also, in domestic life, the parent of a family, in a village like this, will have an eye to the example which sets before his children. He may, for instance, feel, as he lifts the cup of spirit to his lips, that *he* indeed has moral courage sufficient to resist the temptation of taking too deep a draught; that *his* reason will never be drowned in the flood of intemperance: but, when he beholds his children looking at him, as he sips the welcome draught ;—when he reflects also, that, ere long, they too may justly claim the privilege of following the example he is now setting them,—a privilege which he can never justly withhold, after he has constantly enjoyed it in their presence; when he reflects on these things, he will stop, as he raises the bowl to his lips ;—he will remember that he is a father ;—he will think of the temptations to which his babes will be necessarily exposed,

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in this world, without adding to them those which originate in his own example ;—he will desist from the gratification of his desire ;—he will sacrifice his own passions, however strong, upon the altar of his children's safety. In like manner, when he speaks before his little ones, of those whose characters they should be taught to reverence, such for instance, as the character of their daily instructers,—although *he* may discover faults in those characters, even though *he* may esteem them to be unworthy of much confidence,—even though *he* may be disposed to remove them from stations of such influence, as they now occupy :—yet, when he reflects upon the powerful and salutary influence which they exert, even with all their comparative demerit, he will not be disposed to lessen the degree of that influence over his children, by speaking before them in such a manner as shall lead them, not only to disrespect their characters, but, it may be, the character of all future persons who shall sustain towards them the same responsible stations.

POPULAR IMPROVEMENT.

[The association proposed in the following articles was briefly described in an outline given in No. 10 of the Journal of Education. It is with much pleasure that we bring the subject at present before our readers, with the additional intelligence that the efforts of the individual who devotes himself to this excellent object, are meeting with a great share of their deserved success, and contributing effectually both to the dissemination of useful knowledge in the community, and the improvement of common education.

Whether the exertions which are made for improving instruction in common schools should be managed exactly in the way here prescribed, is not perhaps of any great consequence. But that the improvement of teaching must begin with teachers themselves and with parents in general, is evident ; and a plan which embraces both objects is most likely to prove extensively beneficial.]

The undersigned agree to associate under the name of the Branch of the American Lyceum, and adopt the following articles for their Constitution.

Art. 1. The objects of the Lyceum are the improvement of

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its members in useful knowledge, and the advancement of Popular Education, by introducing uniformity and improvements in Common Schools.

Art. 2. To effect these objects, they will procure a cabinet, consisting of books, apparatus for illustrating the sciences, and a collection of minerals, and will hold meetings for discussions, dissertations, illustrating the sciences, or other exercises which shall be thought expedient.

Art. 3. Any person may be a member of the Lyceum, by paying into the treasury annually, two dollars; and twenty dollars paid at any one time, will entitle a person, his or her heirs or assigns, to one membership forever. Persons under eighteen years of age will be entitled to all the privileges of the society, except of voting, for one half the annual sum above named.

Art. 4. The officers of this branch of the Lyceum shall be a President, Vice-President, Treasurer, Recording and Corresponding Secretaries, three or five Curators, and three Delegates, to be appointed by ballot on the first Wednesday of September annually.

Art. 5. The President, Vice-President, Treasurer, and Secretaries, will perform the duties usually implied in those offices. The Curators will have charge of the Cabinet and all other property of the Lyceum not appertaining to the Treasury, and will be the general agents to do any business for the society under their direction. The delegates will meet delegates from other branches of the Lyceum semi-annually, to adopt regulations for their general and mutual benefit, or to take measures to introduce uniformity and improvements into common schools, and to diffuse useful and practical knowledge generally through the community.

Art. 6. To raise the standard of common education, and to benefit the Juvenile members of the Lyceum, a portion of the books procured shall be fitted to young minds; and teachers of schools may be permitted to use for the benefit of their pupils who are members of the Lyceum, the apparatus and minerals under such restrictions as the association shall prescribe.

Art. 7. The President or any five members will have power at any time to call a special meeting, which meeting shall be legal if notice shall be given according to the direction in the By-Laws.

Art. 8. The Lyceum will have power to adopt such regulations and by-laws as shall be necessary for the management

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and use of the Cabinet, for holding meetings, or otherwise for their interest.

Art. 9. The foregoing articles may be altered or amended by vote of two thirds present, at any legal meeting; said alteration or amendment having been proposed at a meeting, not less than four weeks previous to the one at which it is acted upon.

Geological and Agricultural Surveys.

With a view of extending a knowledge of Geology, and giving to the public a better acquaintance with our mineral resources and agricultural productions and improvements, Mr. Holbrook designs, during the coming season, to visit several sections of the country and to give lectures upon Geology, and its connexion with Agriculture and Internal Improvements. In the lectures the original formation, present structure, and prominent features of the earth, will be explained, and specimens presented of the different kinds of rocks, marbles, ores, and other useful minerals, and their properties, uses, and locality described. Models of Railways and Canal Locks will also be exhibited, and a statement made of the comparative expense and facilities of the different modes of internal commerce, with the success of each, as it has been determined by actual experiment.

In the places he visits, Mr. H. will esteem i ta particular favour, to be furnished with answers, to the whole or a part of the following questions. What rocks and soils predominate in town, and what the varieties? What the subsoils? Are beds of clay, sand, marl, or peat, found, and how used? If peat or its ashes are used for a manure, on what soils and plants, and with what effect? If it is used for fuel, what its value per cord, compared with wood? Has it been used for the steam engine? Have any beds of peat been reduced to a productive soil by draining? Have the mixing of soils, irrigation, and draining, been practised, and what the manner, and success? Has gypsum been used, and upon what soils and plants, and what the effect? What ponds or streams of water; their size, elevation, descent, power, application, and effect? Are farms appropriated most to grazing or tillage? If to grazing, how much butter and cheese, wool or beef is a fair estimate upon a hundred acres? From which animal will a hundred acres produce the greatest weight of animal matter, the sheep or ox? If tillage is pursued, in what vegetable will an acre of ground afford the greatest quantity of nutriment for animals, and what the mode of cultivating it? What the rotation of crops? What the compar-

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ative expense and profits of different modes of culture, including grazing and tillage? Are any improved breeds of animals or of agricultural implements introduced? Are any ores, paints, or rare minerals known?

To aid individuals, associations, schools and academies in making examinations, or giving instructions upon Geology and Mineralogy, Mr. Holbrook has collected most of the valuable minerals in such quantities, that he can furnish sets of labelled specimens to those who may wish to procure them. He has also collected and devised a set of apparatus for familiar and practical illustrations in the sciences with their application to the Useful Arts. The articles of apparatus are designed to illustrate the principles of Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Mathematics, and Astronomy; and are so simple in their construction, and can be afforded at so cheap a rate, as to render it both practicable and desirable, to introduce them into academies, and to some extent into common schools, as well as into associations for mutual improvement. It is hoped that farmers, teachers, and school committees, will deem this subject worthy of their consideration.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

It requires no little reflection to establish correct principles of *school government*. The mere exertion of authority is not sufficient. The fear of punishment, which may be inflicted for petty transgressions, ought never to be the ruling motive of obedience. It must be borne in mind, that the members of a school, with all their imperfections of judgment, are rational beings, and ought to be treated as such. The arbitrary enforcing of regulations, even, that may be consonant with the best interests of a school, will hardly fail of creating a difficulty. There is in the human mind a natural repugnance to mere passive obedience, and this is a trait that ought never to be obliterated in the course of a rational education. It is the source from which spring all those great and magnanimous actions which promote the public good at the expense of private convenience. It is this trait strongly developed, that leads on to those efforts of self-sacrificing virtue, which exalt our ideas of human nature and the immortal mind. How careful then, should a teacher be, not to restrain this noble propensity! and how seldom is this an object in or-

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dinary schools!—Let your laws be ever so strict, if you appeal to the pupil's sense of propriety and honor, if you address yourself to his reason and convince him by solid argument, he will submit without a murmur. *Men* are united together in social and political life for their mutual benefit. The good of all requires from each individual the sacrifice of a large portion of natural liberty: yet the increased security and convenience resulting from the union, are a tenfold recompense for the expense by which they are gained. It is the conviction of this truth that binds in harmonious concord the different members of society. Such, to compare great things with small, should be the principle at the foundation of school government. *Schoolboys* are *young men*, and should be governed by the same principles as their elders. Let the consequences of misconduct be plainly pointed out; let the penalties be always enforced, severe, perhaps, and rigorous; but let them be founded in reason, and let the reason be explained and made manifest. If there be any desperate spirit that cannot be bent to such conditions, let him be removed at once: for it is better to resort to such a measure than descend to the infliction of a degrading corporeal punishment.—*View of Geneseo High School.*

INTELLIGENCE.

IMPROVEMENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS IN CONNECTICUT.

Extracts from Gov. Tomlinson's Message of May last.

[To most of our readers it is well known that in the State of Connecticut an unusual degree of public attention has of late been turned to the condition of the common schools with a view to their improvement. Societies have been formed expressly for this purpose, and within two years much progress has been made in this laudable object. Farther intelligence on this subject we hope to communicate at an early opportunity.*]

The perpetual pledge of the School Fund to the dissemination of knowledge among the people of the State, evinced a wise solicitude to advance the best interests of posterity; and the distribution of it according to the ratio of the population between the ages of four and sixteen years, annually ascertained, secures to each school district a semi-annual dividend, sufficient, with a comparatively small additional expense, to place the inestimable advantages of a good school within the reach of every family in the State. The safety of this fund is of paramount importance. You will, therefore, undoubtedly, be gratified to know, that its condition has never been more safe nor prosperous, and that the dividends it has showered upon the people during the past year, con-

*We should feel much indebted to any individual connected with associations such as those mentioned above, who would furnish us with fuller information than it is possible for us at this distance to procure.—*Ed.*

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siderably exceed the aggregate amount of all taxes levied by the State for the same period.

The Commissioners' report regarding a public trust inferior to none in the State, will be duly laid before you, and become rightfully the subject of your scrutinizing examination. It will exhibit the gratifying fact, that the fund has been augmented to more than one million eight hundred and seventy thousand dollars. The continuance of the watchfulness and vigilance, with which this fund has been managed, since it was placed under the care of a single commissioner, will doubtless in future years, considerably increase its income, by judicious and more productive investments. The additions necessarily made to the principal, in effecting such investments, may be expected at no distant day, to augment it to two million of dollars. The interest of this sum would be entirely adequate, if properly expended, to accomplish the laudable object of its original appropriation, and its subsequent pledge by the constitution.

There is too much reason to conclude that the liberal endowment of common schools has occasioned a relaxation of the praiseworthy efforts to extend their utility, which distinguished our fathers—and that many have already fallen into the too prevalent error of undervaluing and neglecting common blessings, because an unfortunate deprivation of them may not have proved their real worth.

The thorough examination of the instructers, and the faithful inspection of the common schools, is indispensable. Inattention to the character and qualifications of the teachers will be followed by deplorable consequences.

Without assiduous, efficient, moral, and learned teachers, our schools must sink. The dividends of our munificent funds may, indeed, be drawn from the treasury, and the schools opened and kept for a time sufficient to absorb them, by incompetent instructers; but the standard of education will soon be lowered, the community cease to be animated by the spirit of the age, and a large portion of our youth be consigned to ignorance and immorality.

The utility and improvement of our system of education depend, primarily, on the school visitors. Their duties have relation, not merely to the proper distribution of the public money, but to the character and happiness of those who will soon be introduced to the active scenes of life, and exercise a controlling influence upon the institutions and reputation of the State. To your consideration is submitted the propriety of more specially prescribing, by law, the duties of the school visitors, with additional sanctions, and of requiring the board in each society, in the month of September, annually, to report to the Comptroller the qualifications and attainments of the teachers by them approved; the number of visits made to each school; the length of time a school shall have been kept in each school district; the branches of learning taught therein; the progress made by the scholars; the books used; and generally the condition of the schools in the respective school societies. The operations of our present system might be thus officially and accurately ascertained, and a body of information collected highly useful in guiding future legislation. Such reports would also naturally produce increased vigilance and energy in the visitors, by enhancing their responsibility; excite a spirit of emulation among the pupils especially conducive to their advancement in learning, and cause the exclusion of incompetent persons from an employment of transcendant importance.

Report of a Committee of the Legislature.

The report of the Committee on Common Schools was read, and on motion of Mr. T. S. Williams, 300 copies ordered to be printed, together with the accompanying bill. The principal feature of the bill provides for the appointment of a superintendant, with a salary, by the Assembly. His principal duties are, to adopt rules for the regulation of schools, recommend or provide suitable books, diffuse general information, visit each county, send blank forms for returns to each school district, &c.—*Conn. Herald.*

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INFANT SCHOOLS.

[It is with much pleasure that we have it in our power to present the following intelligence regarding this useful and important class of institutions. There may not be the same urgent necessity for such schools in most parts of the United States as there is in England. But no person who is acquainted with the condition of some classes of the population of several of our larger cities, can doubt that there is abundant room for the operation of any plan of benevolence, which tends to elevate the mental and moral character by efforts directed to the early improvement of children. We are happy, moreover, to observe that the benefits of infant schools are not to be restricted to any one class of society to the exclusion of others, but that the aid afforded to infantile happiness is to be disseminated among all according to their respective circumstances.]

Infant Schools in Philadelphia.—We have intended for several weeks past to mention the pleasure we experienced in a visit to the Infant School in Chester street in this city. There were present in one room upwards of one hundred and fifty children from eighteen months to six years old. The ease with which such a number was managed, their general docility, aptness for instruction, and delight in their employments, struck us very agreeably. These schools will, we think, convince any who may be doubtful of it, that infants are capable of learning and comprehending many things which are usually thought to be above their reach, though advantage is undoubtedly gained in this respect by association. In the school which we visited the children chiefly belong to parents who are compelled to labour away from home. To such it is not only a great relief to have their children provided for during their absence, and that regularly, but it must be a great gratification to know that they are receiving all the instruction of which they are capable.

But it is not children in humble life only who may be benefited by this institution. It may be usefully applied to all classes, and great good will result to any community, we are convinced, which shall establish Infant Schools. The system is a simple one; easily learnt, and adapted as well to country villages as to large towns. Those who may be desirous of acquiring a knowledge of it, will derive information and pleasure from a little volume published last year, and compiled, we have heard, by Mrs. Bethune, of New-York, entitled *Infant Education, or remarks on the importance of Educating the Infant Poor.—Church Register.*

Infant Schools in Boston.—Several ladies of this city, becoming deeply interested in the subject of Infant Instruction, as conducted in Europe, New-York, and Philadelphia, appointed a meeting to be held on the 8th of Apil, at the house of Mrs. Wm. Thurston, Bowdoin Place, for the purpose of forming an *Infant School Society.* About ninety ladies attended. The meeting was opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. Skinner, who delivered a very appropriate address. After he had retired, the ladies proceeded to organize themselves into a Society, by adopting a constitution, and choosing as officers a first and second Directress, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, a Treasurer, and twelve managers. A subscription was then opened, and the object received liberal patronage from many present. It is intended the School shall go into operation as soon as the necessary apparatus can be procured.

The object of Infant Schools is to watch over, assist, and guide the earliest developments of the faculties; to combine physical, intellectual, and moral culture; and to assist and relieve those parents, who are precluded (by whatever means) from giving due attention to the early education of their children. The age of the children to whom the advantages of the Infant School in this city are to be extended, will be from eighteen months to four years.—*Zion's Her.*

[Another School, to be supported by a private association, will be commenced in June; and one, it is expected, will be opened in autumn for the benefit of a few families who are desirous of applying the experiment of the infant school plan to the education of their own children.]

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NOTICES.

The American Instructer, Second Book. Designed for Common Schools in America; containing the Elements of the English Language, Lessons in Orthography and Reading, and the Pronunciation of Walker's Critical Pronouncing Dictionary; all made easy by the Arrangement and Division of Words, and by an improved use of Figures and Letters. By Hall J. Kelley, A. M. Author of the Instructer, First Book. Second Edition. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 1826. 12mo. pp. 168.

We have taken occasion more than once to mention our regret that spelling-books, as commonly compiled, offer so little assistance to the minds of children—that they abound in columns of detached and often unintelligible words; and that they sometimes contain an unnecessary portion of grammar and of difficult and uninteresting reading lessons. In the last two of these defects this volume rather exceeds. It possesses, however, several excellent points. It refers in a distinct manner, and on proper occasions, to principles of orthoepy mentioned and numbered in the beginning of the book. It furnishes also a dictionary to several of the more difficult reading lessons.

Comparing this spelling-book with that of Mr. Emerson, mentioned formerly, we should prefer the latter for its greater simplicity, for its restriction chiefly to orthoepy, and its practical and unambitious character. We still must express our hope, however, that a more useful work than any of those hitherto produced in this department, will be compiled. This result will be obtained, when an editor shall be found, willing to publish a book of this sort, containing fewer words by several thousands than it has been customary to introduce,—restricting his book to shorter and easier words, and inserting none in columns which have not previously been presented in simple and intelligible reading lessons. The meaning of the words might be given along with the orthography and orthoepy; and the reading lessons might be drawn from useful and instructive sources. In this case, the spelling-book, instead of exercising no faculty but that of memory, might furnish useful employment both for the understanding and the heart; and thus the improvement of the whole mind might be successfully attained,—a point of great consequence, whether in regard to the practical business of life, or to advancement in moral excellence.

The Tales of Peter Parley, about Europe, with Engravings. S. G. Goodrich, Boston. 1828. 16mo. pp. 96.

This little volume is designed as a companion to the corresponding one of tales about America, and is adapted to primary or elementary schools, as well as families. Its object is to excite curiosity, and create an interest in geography and history, so as to prepare the young mind for regular treatises on these branches of education. Questions on the principal subjects of every chapter are annexed to each page of the work, with a view to produce attention and cultivate the memory. The style, throughout, is familiar and striking; and the book will prove a very interesting one to its little readers; as has been the case with its predecessor, the volume on America, of which notice was taken in the 20th number of the Journal.

There are, however, some things which it would be desirable to have modified in a second edition, we allude to several of the remarks on the character of the European sovereigns and the nobility, which, though for the most part unfortunately too true, still admit of qualification and occasional exceptions. Some alterations should be made in a few of the cuts illustrative of national customs. Our objection to these is, that the impressions which they would produce would be too general, and might tend to foster national prejudices.

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AMERICAN

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SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

[The pamphlet from which the following article is transcribed, is entitled 'Report of the Committee on Public Schools' (for the town of Providence.) We have already had occasion to mention it, as one of the most valuable expositions hitherto made, of a system of public schools adapted to the actual circumstances of society. The report has been drawn up after a careful inspection of the school system of Boston, both in regard to the gradation of the schools, and the methods of instruction adopted in them. It forms, accordingly, a useful document for reference, whether for information relating to plans of arrangement for public education, or for direct assistance in teaching. School committees and teachers will derive equal benefit from a perusal of it.

We would recommend to the particular attention of our readers the just and practical observations on the true policy of communities in relation to common education, and especially the remarks on elementary and on high schools. The comparative view of methods of instruction is also worthy of peculiar notice, as presenting the results of close observation and judicious reflection, on topics on which there still exists a diversity of opinion among teachers. In the leading name of the committee whose signatures are appended to this report, our readers will recognize that of an ardent and distinguished friend to popular improvement, whom they will, with increased pleasure, observe devoting himself, with his accustomed energy, to one of the most useful labours of an enlightened benevolence.]

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The Sub-Committee, to whom was referred the consideration of the present school system of the town of Providence, and who were directed to recommend such alterations and improvements as they might deem necessary, beg leave respectfully to report:

That immediately after their appointment, a majority of them visited Boston, and were employed for several days, in examining the most flourishing schools of that metropolis. The result of this examination will be incorporated in the following remarks. It may not however be improper to state, that the school system of that city, appears in most respects a model most worthy of the imitation of every large town, in our country. It is with the most lively gratitude, that your committee acknowledge the kindness with which they were received, and the facilities which were given to their inquiries by his Hon. Josiah Quincy, Mayor of the city, and various other gentlemen to whom they applied for information. They would especially record the names of Mr. Alderman Armstrong, Rev. Mr. Wisner, and Moses Grant, Esq., of the Primary School Committee.

Your committee, have also visited pursuant to their directions all the public schools of this town, and the excellent private school of Messrs. De Witt and Kingsbury.

Before going into detail upon the subject of the common schools in this town, your committee hope to be indulged in a few remarks, which may tend in some degree to illustrate the course which it has seemed their duty to recommend.

The principle which should mainly direct the appropriation of public money is evidently equity. In other words money raised by a tax upon every individual should be so distributed that every individual should have an opportunity of participating in the benefits of its expenditure. Or, to apply the principle to the present case, if money is contributed by every citizen for the purpose of education, a school system should be so devised that every citizen should receive not merely the general advantage of having his neighbours better instructed, but also an equitable share of that instruction which he assists to maintain. Now if this view of the subject be just, it will follow that there should be furnished a number of schools sufficient to accommodate all who wish to avail themselves of their advantages. Every one sees the injustice of taxing the whole community to support one or two schools, to which not more than one tenth part of the whole number of children could find admittance. The same injustice will evidently occur, if the number

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of scholars imposed upon a teacher be so great as to render his instructions of so little value that a large portion of the community is obliged to resort to private schools.

The same principle would dictate that there be established the various *grades* of schools, suited to the wants of the public. If there be but one description of schools, it must either be so elevated that many of the parents cannot prepare their children to enter it, or else so elementary that none would avail themselves of its advantages, for any considerable length of time, or else every thing would of necessity be so imperfectly taught that a very small portion would be benefited. In either case, but a small portion of the community would receive the benefit of that provision, which all were taxed to support. The first was the case in Boston previous to the establishment of primary schools. The grammar schools admitted no one unless he could read in the testament. But it was found by actual examination that a very great proportion of the poorer class, were unable or unwilling to procure at their own expense this preparatory education for their children, and that thus many thousands were growing up in utter ignorance.

It may here be properly suggested whether equity does not demand that the system of public education in this town, should make provision for at least one school of a higher character, a school which should provide instruction in all that is necessary to a finished education. If it be said that such a school would be of advantage only to the rich, it may be answered, as the rich contribute in an equal proportion to education, why should not they be entitled to a portion of the benefit. But it is far from being the case, that such a school would be only for the rich. It would be as much a public school, as open to all, and as much under the government of the public as any other. But it would evidently be of most peculiar advantage to the middling classes, and the poor. Such an education as we propose, the rich man can give, and will give to his son, by sending him to private schools. But the man in moderate circumstances cannot afford to incur the heavy expense of a first rate school, and if no such provision be made, the education of his children must be restricted to the ordinary acquisition of a little more than reading and writing. With such a school as we have contemplated, he would be enabled to give his child an education which would qualify him for distinction in any kind of business.

And lastly, the principles of equity to which we have alluded, would dictate that the public schools of every description, should

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be well and skilfully taught. If this be not done, the result will be obvious. The funds by which they are supported are contributed by the rich and by the middling classes of society. If they be badly taught, the rich will derive no benefit from them. This however is a small matter, as they can afford to give something towards the education of the poor, and also to pay for the education of their own children elsewhere. It is otherwise with the citizen in middling circumstances. If a public school be badly taught and he is sensible of the value of a good education, he also will send his children to a private school. To him this double expense, especially if his family be large, is a serious inconvenience ; he is taxed to support schools of which he will not avail himself, and in addition pays as much for the education of his children as though he had contributed nothing. It must be evident that the true interest of every citizen of moderate circumstances, must be so to elevate the character of our public schools, that he need look no where else for as good instruction as his family may require. Although to accomplish this he pays a somewhat heavier tax, for public education, he will in the end be greatly the gainer.

Here, however, we are aware that another consideration will occur. It may be said, that in the distribution of funds raised for public schools, perfect equity is not to be looked for nor desired,—that this is a contribution from the rich, for the benfit of the poor, and that they are sufficiently rewarded by the improved morals and intellectual condition of the poorer classes of the community. Now granting all this to be so, we must remark that the spirit of the suggestion seems to us at variance with our republican institutions. It in reality belongs to the old world, more than to the new. Why create such distinction between our fellow citizens ? Why should one class of society be supposed to say to another, it is for our interest that you should have education, and we give it to you, but it shall be as useless as any thing which can bear the name, so useless that for ourselves and our families, we will have nothing to do with it. We hope nô man amongst us, would be willing to harbour such a thought, or utter such a sentiment.

But, as we said before, granting all this to be true, and that perfect equity in the distribution cannot be attained, as, clearly it cannot, what then ? Is not education a commodity, which all classes of the community want ? Why then should we not furnish it of such quality that all may enjoy it together. By furnishing a valuable course of public instruction, the rich will en-

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joy its advantages, and surely it cannot injure the middling classes and poor. Nor do we here look towards an impracticable result. Children of every class are seen in the public schools in Boston, and they are found there because, as in several instances, wealthy parents told your committee, the public were preferable to the private schools.

And here we may remark that there can be no doubt of the effect of a single school of the highest character, upon the discipline and improvement of all the other. Entrance to it would be conferred, as the reward of merit, upon the most deserving scholars of each grammar school, and its requirements should always be an accurate knowledge of the branches taught in these schools. It is needless to suggest that a thorough education in such a school as we propose would be the most valuable reward which could be conferred upon diligence and good conduct. Of its value, both to the community and the scholar, we need mention only one fact. The regular course in the High School in Boston, occupies three years. Sixty or eighty boys enter it annually. But such is the demand for clerks from this school, though in such a city there are always abundant applications for such situations, that in no case did a greater number than eight or ten in a year complete the whole course.

If then we are not mistaken in these views, it is evident that public instruction should be provided in sufficient extent to meet the wants of the community. The course should embrace a series of instruction, from the simplest elements to the higher branches of knowledge, and the instruction in every department should be of the most valuable character. Let us then briefly inquire how far our present school system accomplishes these objects.

How far the provisions for education are proportioned to the magnitude of our population, it may not be possible with perfect accuracy to decide. Judging from the few facts in our possession, it would however seem probable that the public good would be promoted by considerably enlarging them. The schools now number on their books as many pupils as can receive advantage from the labors of their present instructors. Yet it will not we presume be denied, that a very considerable portion of the children about our streets attend no school whatever.

It is stated from official documents, that there are in the state of New-York, many portions of which are sparsely settled, one fourth part of the whole population under the process of education. Taking one fourth of the whole population, then, as the

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proportion which at one time needs instruction, 4500 would be about the number to be educated in this town, Of these suppose 2000 to be educated by private instruction, a number by far too great, if the public schools are such as to command the confidence of the community, and provision ought to be made for the education of 2500. The present provision, in the opinion of your committee, is sufficient for but little more than 1000. If in addition to these facts it be considered that unless the course of instruction be such as to interest every class of society, it can be of material benefit to no class, and if it be so it must be much more extensive than at present, we think that the wisdom of considerably enlarging the means of education will be evident.

It would therefore seem proper that the school committee, joined with such persons as the town council may add, be empowered to increase the means of instruction from time to time, as the wants of the population may require. But it has appeared to your committee that one part of this object may be accomplished immediately, and with very little additional expense, by establishing a sufficient number of primary schools in different parts of the town. The effect of these will be to provide a grade of instruction as much needed by the public as any other, to elevate the character of the grammar schools, and to enable the teachers of these schools to devote their attention to a larger portion of those who are prepared for instruction in the more advanced branches of education. We have no doubt that by providing a suitable proportion of these schools, the number of scholars under public instruction would in a short time be doubled, and the convenience to the community be immeasurably increased.

This, however, leads us to remark upon the defect of the present system with respect to gradation of instruction. With the exception of two primary schools lately commenced, our schools are all of one grade. That this arrangement is both unwise and unnecessarily expensive, is plainly to be seen. The teachers of the grammar schools are men, some of them men of families. They are of course employed at men's wages, which are more than three times the wages of females. Now in admitting scholars to their schools, there must be some previous education required, or none. If none be required, you would have a man receiving man's wages for teaching the simplest lessons, which could be taught better by a female, who could be employed at one third the price. If you insist upon previous education,

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many of the children of the poor will be kept out of school until they are so old as to be ashamed to learn.

The fact has been that, as generally happens in cases of this sort, a middle course has been adopted. Scholars before entering, have been, by the regulations, required to be able to read. But from this law, (there being no provision for preparatory education,) the teachers have been obliged to relax, and the result has been that a large number of the scholars in every school, are scarcely able to read intelligibly. With this portion of his scholars, very much of the teacher's time is occupied, and the result of his labour upon either the more or less advanced, is much less than might otherwise be expected. But it is needless to enlarge upon this subject. Every one must see that economy would forbid the paying a man for teaching English grammar, arithmetic and geography, and then employing him in teaching spelling lessons, and the first elements of reading.

These evils will at once be prevented by providing schools, for teaching children from four to seven years of age, in the alphabet, spelling, reading, and the first elements of arithmetic, and by requiring that no scholar shall be admitted to the grammar school unless he be able to read in the testament. The grammar schools can then be devoted to the acquisition of greater perfection in reading, and to the study of arithmetic, geography, English grammar, and penmanship.

If, in addition to these two grades of schools, a single school for the whole town be established, of a more elevated character, to enter which, it shall be necessary to have been a proficient in all the studies of the grammar schools, and in which should be taught a more perfect and scientific knowledge of geography, book-keeping, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, navigation, moral and natural philosophy, natural history, the elements of political economy, and the Constitution of the United States, and the Latin and Greek languages; we think that our system of instruction would be such as to do honour to the public spirit of this commercial and manufacturing metropolis, but not at all beyond what is demanded by the advancing intelligence of the age. Whether a high school, of somewhat the same character, for girls, might not also be desirable and expedient, would be a matter for future consideration.

To the question, in what manner these several schools should be taught, that is, whether on the common or the monitorial system, your committee have given considerable attention. The result of their observation and reflection is briefly this :—They

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believe that for the primary schools, the monitorial system is decidedly preferable. The schools which they examined in Boston on this plan, were altogether superior to those upon the former plan. They beg leave here to introduce an extract from the report of a committe on this very subject, to the Boston general committee on primary schools. It may also be added, that no higher authority on such a question can any where be found.

'We have investigated the advantages derived from the monitorial system, in the schools to which it has been applied, and consider the evidence perfectly satisfactory that they are certain and highly important. In addition to the relief this system affords to the teachers, by supplying them with assistance drawn from their own school, and without expense, and thereby enabling them to give more accurate attention to the duties reserved for themselves, and a more thorough supervision of the school, and thus, to communicate instruction with more facility to a much greater number of pupils; it appears that the effects on the pupils themselves, are in the highest degree beneficial. The manifest indifference or reluctance which they exhibit in most of our schools on the common plan, the most material obstruction to education, is in a great measure removed, and, in its place, an animated emulation carries forward their progress with a rapidity unknown before the introduction of this system; and the constancy and variety of occupation imposed, is found by experience to create as great an interest in their minds as would be produced by any useless or mischievous sports in which they would otherwise be engaged; and by debarring idleness, takes away all opportunity and desire for those faults for which incessant punishment is now found necessary, and thus becomes the most efficient instrument of dicipline, the greatest desideratum in our schools. This is not a novel and untried theory, but an experiment fairly made, and in a course of succesful operation.'

With these remarks the observations of your committee fully coincide; and therefore it is only necessary to add, that this system of instruction, in their opinion, should be preferred for the primary schools which are, or which may hereafter be, established.

Your Committee have reflected deliberately upon the question, what system of instruction should be recommended for the grammar schools now existing, or whether any alteration be necessary. It may here be proper to remark, that your committee believe that the present instructers have done every thing in their

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power to carry forward the course of education committed to their charge, and have richly merited the thanks of the community. But from the remarks which have been made, it will be evident that they have laboured under many and peculiar embarrassments. A large portion of their pupils are occupied in the simplest elements. They are mere children. They occupy the teacher's time unprofitably to themselves and to the rest of the school, and hence the instruction to them and the older scholars, is far less valuable than it would be under a different arrangement. Of this fact the teachers themselves are aware, and they sincerely regret it.

But while your Committee are convinced of the benefit which the schools, as they now exist, have conferred upon the public, they have seriously deliberated whether they might not be greatly improved by the introduction of monitorial system. Some of the considerations, which have had effect on their minds, are these:

The beneficial effects of the monitorial system on the primary schools, have been already alluded to; but if such are the results upon children of from 4 to 7 years of age, why should they not be the same upon those of from 7 to 13 or 14? If children of 5, 6, and 7 years of age can teach each other, why should not children of 14, 13, or 12. But it is said a child cannot teach as well as a master—that all things being equal he could not, may be granted; but such is not the case in fact. If a master could spend ten minutes with a child that was learning to spell, he might teach it better than a monitor but little older than itself; but if the time of the master is so occupied that he can spend but one minute upon this child, and the monitor can spend ten, we think there will be but little doubt under whose tuition the child can learn most.

But again, in teaching elements, we are far from being certain that, under proper supervision, the child may not be the best instructer. Children who associate with children, learn to talk much faster than those who associate with adults; and we are not sure that the principles which govern in the one case would not govern in the other.

But waiving this question, and granting that, if a teacher were limited to 20 or 30 pupils he would teach better by personal instruction than upon the monitorial system—what has this decision to do with the case? Are we prepared to establish such schools? Are there any where such public schools? The plain fact is, that we must construct a system upon the supposition

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that there will be from 150 to 200 scholars to a teacher, or to a teacher and an assistant. Now for such schools as these, we are inclined to believe that the monitorial system is preferable. So far as our observation has gone we frankly declare, that the proficiency of scholars, under the same circumstances in other respects, when taught under the monitorial system, has been decidedly superior to that of those taught upon the common system. On this subject, however, our fellow citizens have the opportunity of judging for themselves. The school of Messrs. Dewitt and Kingsbury, is, at stated times, open to the public; and we are happy to add, that we have seen no institution which presents a more interesting and pleasing exhibition of skilful and successful teaching.

But although these have been the views of your Committee, they are far from recommending that the monitorial system be at once adopted in all our grammar schools. They are aware of the uncertainty of theory, and that many of the circumstances necessary to success in any particular place, may have been overlooked. They, however, feel fully justified in recommending, that one of the public schools be so far altered as to be established upon the monitorial system, and that thus a fair trial, open to the inspection of the public, may be made. The truth of the question can thus be easily settled, by allowing every one to judge for himself. The expense will be light, and the advantage which is hoped for, is most important.

With regard to the improvement of the grammar schools, on the present system, your Committee have but little to remark. Many of the most necessary improvements would certainly flow from the establishment of primary schools, and could not be carried into effect without it. Others will necessarily arise from a more punctual superintendence on the part of the Committee. The following, however, might, if it were thought best, be adopted immediately:

The number of absences is at present very great; probably amounting in general to about one fourth of the whole number of scholars belonging to the school. This might be diminished by keeping a regular absence list every day, and reporting it to the committee at their visitation.

Benefits would result, in the opinion of your Committee, from introducing into the schools some system of rewards, which should appeal continually to the emulation of the pupils. This may be arranged in a variety of ways, either of which would accomplish the same purpose, if it applied invariably and at all

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times to every individual. Human beings may be governed by an appeal to their love of character, or to their fears. We prefer the former, as more kind and more successful.

As to the manner in which a high school should be conducted, we will not here hazard any opinion. The decision on this subject will depend so much upon the branches to be taught, that until the character of the school be permanently settled, any opinion would be manifestly fruitless.

The books at present used in the schools, are, in the opinion of your Committee, altogether above the range of thought of the pupils. Works of a narrative character would be better understood, would be more interesting, and would of course teach the pupil to read with more taste and judgment. The boy who pores, in utter disgust, over the book which he reads in school, will hasten home to read with avidity his story book. The true wisdom would then be to introduce the story book into school, and thus render his place of education the place of his amusement.

It may be mentioned that proper story books are now published, that not only amuse children, but afford the best sort of instruction, and make the most lasting impressions.

Nevertheless, as this subject is one in which time and judgment are necessary for a selection, and as a change of this sort, through all the schools, would be productive of considerable additional expense, your Committee would recommend that no change at present be made in books, excepting only the arithmetic. If a school, by way of experiment, be established, on the monitorial plan, various school books can be tried there, and after a fair opportunity of testing the merits of several, those can be selected which seem best adapted to accomplish the purposes of education. Your Committee are, however, of opinion, that it would be expedient to introduce the system of arithmetic published by Mr. Smith, into all the public grammar schools; and also that all the scholars in arithmetic be taught by classes, and not individually as is now the prevalent mode.

In closing this Report, your Committee feel obliged to assure their fellow citizens, that it is utterly in vain to hope for a valuable course of public instruction without a thorough and active system of supervision on the part of the community. Unless the the schools be visited frequently, and examined thoroughly, and unless the School Committees determine to give to this subject all the attention, and reflection, and labour necessary to carry the system of education to as great a degree of perfection as the

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case admits, every thing will be fruitless. Without this, every plan of education will fail, and with it almost any may be made to succeed. If a sufficient number of gentlemen can be found, who will devote to the interests of the rising generation a half day every month, and who will so combine their labours as to produce the effect of a particular and general supervision, all that the most benevolent could wish can be accomplished. If such men cannot be found, nothing of value will ever be done.

It is therefore recommended, that the school committee, to be hereafter chosen, be divided into two committees, to be denominated the primary school committee, and the grammar school committee. That both of these be regularly organized, by choosing a chairman and secretary, and that they adopt such rules as shall ensure the visiting of every school by one member of the committee at least once a month; and that each general committee meet once in three months, to consider the condition of the schools in general, and of each one in particular; and that to them and to the Town Council the whole business of the public education be committed.

2d. That primary schools, for the instruction of children from 4 to 7 years of age, be established in various parts of the town, under the superintendence and direction of the primary school committee.

3d. That one of the common schools be immediately established on the monitorial system; and that the committee, authorized to carry this resolution into effect, be also authorized to introduce into it such books, and make for it such regulations, for the time being, as they may deem proper.

4. That a public high school be established, in which shall be taught all the branches necessary to a useful, mercantile, and classical education.

All which is respectfully submitted.

F. Wayland, Jr., William T. Grinnell, Thomas T. Waterman.

Providence, April 22, 1828.

Note.—'The expense of teaching 7044 pupils in Boston, 1826, in public schools, was $54,417. Of teaching 3392 in private schools, $97,305.'

'National wealth proceeds chiefly from activity of mind, and must, therefore, be proportioned to the extent and universality

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of its development. It appears by the statement of Baron Dupin, that in some parts of France, those who are educated are 1-10th, in others 1-20th, in others only 1-229th of the whole population; and that the national revenue from these districts is nearly in corresponding ratios.—*Report of the Managers of the School Society, in the City of New-York.*

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

[THE article now presented to our readers, is extracted from a pamphlet under the following title: 'Report of the Secretary of State, in relation to the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, in the city of New-York.—Made to the Senate April 14, 1828.—Albany.' In our last number we copied from this document some intelligence concerning the New-York institution, and intimated our intention of returning to the contents of the pamphlet, for the purpose of furnishing a view of the various efforts which have been made in the United States, for the benefit of this peculiar class of claimants on human beneficence, as dispensed through the medium of education.

The limits afforded in our present number will only admit of the Report of Mr. Dillingham.* After a perusal of the article now before them, our readers, we think, will feel under obligations to this gentleman for the service he has rendered the community, in the compilation of this interesting and valuable document.]

To A. C. Flagg, Esq., Secretary of State of New-York:—

SIR—Having been honoured by a request to accompany you

* The Secretary of State, (A. C. Flagg, Esq.) in his Report to the Legislature, speaks of Mr. Dillingham in the following terms:

'In order to institute a comparison between the mode of instruction in the Deaf and Dumb school at New-York, and other similar institutions, Charles Dillingham and William S. Cardell, Esqrs, were invited to accompany the superintendent of common schools, as visiters to the deaf and dumb schools at Hartford, New-York, and Philadelphia. Mr. Cardell was present at the examination of the Philadelphia school only. Mr. Dillingham is well acquainted with the system of instruction for the deaf and dumb, having learned it in the Hartford school, and having been a teacher in the school at Philadelphia. He is now a resident of Pittsfield, Massachusetts, where he devotes himself to the business of instruction, and has acquired the confidence of many of our most intelligent citizens, who have placed their sons under his charge. The views of Mr. Dillingham, on the comparative merits of the systems pursued at Hartford and New-York, are appended to this report, to which the legislature is respectfully referred.

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on an official visit to the institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb in Hartford, New-York, and Philadelphia, for the purpose of making an examination and comparison of those institutions, which tour we performed together in September and October last; I take an opportunity of submitting to you a few remarks on several topics which fell under our consideration.

It will be recollected by you, that among other means resorted to by us in these several schools to obtain some knowledge of the proficiency of the pupils, a variety of exercises were proposed to them by us, about which they had no previous notice, and which would, of course, serve to test the genuineness of their knowledge, and their readiness and originality in the use of language. The teachers equally unprepared, conducted these examinations in our presence, which together with the memoranda, of the age and time of instruction of each pupil, will serve to assist you in making a comparison of their various proficiency.

As to the mode of conducting these examinations, or, perhaps I should say, as to the comparative conveniences for doing it, a disadvantage was experienced in the New-York school, from the circumstance of the pupils being seated with small slates and pencils in their hands, instead of being ranged around the room with large upright slates and crayons. If the latter were used, whatever might be written by the pupil would be at once equally exposed to the eye of every person in the school room. Should this improvement be introduced into the New-York school, it would probably aid in training the pupil to the habit of prompt and independent effort, as he would know that his phrases and sentences, whether more or less accurate, would be immediately exposed to the eye of his teacher; and it would also greatly facilitate and expedite the instructions and corrections of the teacher, as he could, without leaving his station, see the whole of the slates while the pupils were writing, and of course his examinations and criticisms would be completed in much less time. To visiters, who may wish to judge of the attainments of the pupils from their own observation, it must always be more satisfactory to *see* the exercises of the pupils written, than to have them handed over after having passed under the inspection of the teacher.

Examinations were also had in arithmetic and geography. The result in the case of some of the New-York pupils, was such as to give evidence, that if they could remain a suitable length of time in the institution, they could be instructed to any desirable extent in these branches.

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While at this point, I wish to remark upon one peculiarity in the education of the deaf and dumb, which, justice to both teacher and pupil, requires to be known and remembered by those who would judge of the proficiency of the one, and the skill and industry of the other. It seems to be supposed, by many, that the deaf and dumb are sent to school, like other children, to learn arithmetic, geography, history, &c. &c. True, a knowledge of these branches is very desirable for the deaf and dumb; and in the course of my acquaintance with deaf and dumb institutions, I have not noticed any want of proper attention to them; but it must be remembered that a vast difference exists between the situation of the mute and his more fortunate brother. The latter comes to his teacher in the full possession and with the ready use of *language*, the medium of communication between himself and his teacher, or other friends from whom, by necessity or curiosity, he is continually deriving instruction in a thousand ways. Far different is the case of the poor uneducated mute: He is compelled to grope his way in comparative darkness for the want of a medium of communication with the rest of the world. He may have a naturally good intellect, but the seal of silence is upon his lips, and his imperfect and uncultivated gestures form but a poor and unsatisfying remedy for this deprivation. He may have a memory naturally quick and retentive, but he can store up but comparatively few facts in it. He may have the most restless and insatiable curiosity, but he has not the means of gratifying it. His great want is the want of language, and should he be so fortunate as to be sent to school, *language*, the *written language of his nation*, is what he goes first to learn. It is true, that as his language of gesture is extended and improved, it serves him as a means of communication with his fellows in misfortune, and with his teacher; but the object of educating him is to prepare him for a useful and pleasing intercourse with society at large. Let us, therefore, in judging of the attainments of these our less fortunate brethren, make due allowance for the time and labour expended by them, to obtain that which we obtained without effort and almost unconsciously, in the years of childhood.

After a pupil has been favoured with tolerable opportunities for education, there is perhaps no better mode of forming an opinion of his attainments, both in the use of language and in general knowledge, than conversation with pen and ink. In this exercise, the pupil is thrown upon his own resources, and whatever evidences he may give of improvement, must be genuine, as

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he cannot be previously prepared, and he cannot confer with his teacher nor be assisted by him; neither can he know upon what subjects the conversation may turn. It is easy to see that if the conversation should be continued for a sufficient time, it would show to what extent and with what accuracy the pupil could use written language, and would also indicate the extent of his general information. I am aware that in examining by this mode, there is a demand for the exercise of some charity, in the case of many of the persons who have been educated at our deaf and dumb seminaries, and for this several reasons may be given. The time generally allowed for them to remain at school, is insufficient to do them justice. It almost always falls much short of what is allowed to children who can hear and speak. We should also bear in mind that the natural language of deaf mutes, and that which they are most fond of resorting to, is not written language, but signs, and upon leaving school, they, in most cases, go among friends who cultivate the language of signs. It will follow, that unless care is used to keep up their knowledge of written language, they will be liable in some degree to retrograde in their readiness and correctness in using it. I have made these remarks as an apology for that want of accuracy which may sometimes appear in the written expressions of the deaf and dumb; and should you, sir, in conversing with an uneducated mute, ever feel any disappointment on this subject, I beg that you will inquire how long he may have been at school, and what opportunities he may have had for improving himself, after leaving school. And should any gentleman, possessing the means of liberally educating his children, inquire how long he must support a deaf and dumb child at the Asylum, it will not, I venture to say, be considered asking too much, for the child thus unfortunate, that he should be kept at school as long as his brothers and sisters, who have all their faculties, or perhaps even a little longer.

But although the apology which has been offered may be no more than what candour or perhaps strict justice would require, for a large portion of those who leave the deaf and dumb institutions, there are cases in which the same lenity is not called for. It will sometimes happen, that a wealthy parent will allow his son a sufficient time at school to do justice to his mind and acquire a good and complete education. Promising pupils may also be sometimes retained on charity funds for a sufficient term of years to illustrate the capabilities of the system of instruction, and to fit the individuals to act as teachers; and such as become

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teachers, it may be expected will continue to improve themselves in that which they make it their business to teach to others. In the institutions at Hartford and Philadelphia, instances exist of young gentlemen making great advances in the English and French languages, and other departments of knowledge, after they had ceased to be pupils, and were employed as assistant teachers. In short, after all that has been claimed for the utility of institutions for the deaf and dumb, and after all the exertions that have been made to draw the public attention to the subject, the friends of the cause of deaf and dumb instruction will naturally and fairly expect that every institution of the kind which has any claim to respectability, after having been in operation for a period of eight or ten years, will have produced at least some pupils to whom their teachers may point with pride and satisfaction, as trophies of their art—as examples to the world of the efficacy of their instructions. And it is reasonable to expect that such pupils, at least, if a stranger is introduced who does not use signs, shall stand the test of conversation in written language. This test was employed by us in the three schools, and I believe we had an opportunity of conversing with the best scholars which those institutions have severally produced. It will be recollected that instruction commenced in the Hartford school in 1817; in New-York in 1818, and in Philadelphia, in 1820. If a comparison be made of the indications of improvement obtained by conversing with the pupils of the several institutions, in written language, the result of such comparison would, in my opinion, be decidedly unfavourable to the New-York institution.

Allow me, sir, to say, what ought perhaps to have had an earlier place in this communication, that I by no means entertain an opinion unfavourable to the talents, zeal, or industry of the Principal of the New-York institution. On the contrary, my observation led me to give that gentleman credit for possessing those qualities in a high degree. If, in any points, the school under his charge may appear to less advantage than others, the solution is rather to be found, I apprehend, in the difficulties and embarrassments which attended the department of instruction in the New-York institution at its origin. To a person acquainted with the measure of improvement and success with which this art had been cultivated in Europe for half a century, by men distinguished for learning and ingenuity; and to such as knew of the talent and perseverance and care which had been employed to introduce it, under the best possible circumstances, into success-

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ful operation in our own country, it could not but appear that the circumstances attending the introduction of deaf and dumb instruction in New-York, were of a nature to depress the standard of that profession, and retard the growth of that confidence on the part of the government, which is so essential to the prosperity of such an institution. Some of the circumstances may be learned by a reference to the published reports of the New-York institution; and I believe a very correct estimate of the comparative state of instruction in the schools at Hartford, New-York, and Philadelphia, may be formed by a perusal of the history of the origin and progress of the several institutions, as given in their several successive reports.

The first attempt at the instruction of the deaf and dumb, concerning which history informs us, was by a Spanish monk, who died in 1584; and the substance of his method was published at Madrid in 1620. Subsequently, attention was given to the subject by various persons in different parts of Europe, whose works were published. Nothing, however, like general or permanent success appears to have attended the efforts of any one, until the time of the Abbe de L'Epee, the fame of whose exhibitions excited the attention of the learned and philosophical of all Europe. His first work was published in 1776. De L'Epee, however, was very far from bringing the system to perfection, although to him is due the praise of having laid the foundation. He seems to have been conscious of deficiencies in his method, and to have foreseen that Sicard, who had already entered the same profession, would outstrip him. But although it is conceded that his instructions came short of imparting to the pupils the full power of using language, originally, still the celebrated instance which has been recorded and quoted as proof, quite satisfactory to many, of the deficiency of De L'Epee's method, is far from being, to my mind, equally convincing.

Mr. Nicolai, an academician of Berlin, being present at one of De L'Epee's exhibitions, requested that a boy might write an original sentence; and having struck his breast with his hand, the boy was directed to describe that action. He immediately wrote '*hand breast.*' It is recorded that Mr. Nicolai retired perfectly satisfied that the system was without any merit whatever; and this incident seems to have been tacitly received as a sufficient proof that De L'Epee was unable to make his pupils any thing more than mere imitators. But may it not be possible that the boy was ahead both of his critic and his teacher, and that if he could have made explanations, it would have ap-

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peared that he used the word hand as a *verb!* If the academician had lived at the present day, when so many shining examples exist of completely developed and richly stored intellect among the deaf and dumb, he might find many among the younger and partly educated mutes, who would give to his action, a description very similar, perhaps, to the one mentioned, and who, if allowed to explain, would defend his right to use the word *hand* as a verb, particularly after using to *eye*, to *shoulder*, to *elbow*, to *finger*, &c.

But whatever may have been the degree of De L'Epee's merit, to him, certainly, is due the high praise of having paved the way for the improvement of the deaf and dnmb. Of the transcendent merits of his illustrious successor, the Abbe Sicard, there can be no doubt. This great and good man succeeded the Abbe de L'Epee, in the administration of the Institution at Paris, and matured and brought to a high degree of improvement the best system which has yet appeared for the instruction of the deaf and dumb: A system, by which the intellect of the pupil may be completely expanded, and the power imparted to him, of expressing his ideas in original language, and of acquiring ideas by means of language, from others, and from books—always allowing that the natural talents of the pupil be good, and that he be kept a sufficient time at school. The only system which has divided with it the public attention in Europe, is that used in the schools in the island of Great Britain.

A writer in the supplement to the fourth and fifth editions of the Encyclopædia Brittanica, in an elaborate article on the deaf and dumb, has taken much pains to prove the inferiority of Sicard's system to the English, as it might be styled; but unfortunately, labouring under ignorance of the former, or an entire misapprehension of its principles, he, as might be expected, fails in the argument. Whatever may be a man's scholarship, or however sound and philosophical his views of subjects with which he is acquainted, yet for him to adventure in speculations on deaf and dumb instruction, without being acquainted with that profession, appears to me quite as absurd as for a chemist to quit his laboratory to discuss the superiority or inferiority of the common to the civil law. It is not my object, however, here to vindicate Sicard's system, as my limits will not admit it; neither is it necessary. It will best be tested, like all systems and all schools and all works, by the *fruits*. On its fruits, the system of Sicard may safely and proudly rely for vindication.

In the year 1800, after about twenty years of assiduous per-

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sonal attention to the instruction of the deaf and dumb, Sicard published his work, entitled 'Course of Instruction'; and eight years after, appeared his 'Theory of Signs.' From the model of the school in Paris, others have been founded in Russia, Germany, Sweden, Italy, Holland, and other parts of Europe.

The above recapitulation, will serve to give an idea of the time that this art has been cultivated, and of the extent to which the French system has become prevalent, and how highly it is appreciated in Europe. The brief statement of a few facts will serve, also, to shew what steps have been taken to introduce this excellent system into certain parts of our country.

For some time previous to the year 1815, the minds of several wealthy and liberal minded citizens of Hartford, Connecticut, were deeply interested in the subject of educating the deaf and dumb of our country; and the project of establishing an institution for that purpose, came under discussion. The exciting cause may be found in the circumstance, that an intelligent and interesting daughter of one of those gentlemen, was deaf and dumb. Some instruction was afforded to that individual, by the aid of works which had been published in Europe, and undoubtedly some partial progress might have been made in educating others; but these gentlemen, with a most enlightened policy, wisely determined, that as the art of instructing mutes had been for many years maturing under the culture of skilful hands, in Europe, it would be far better for the cause of the deaf and dumb in America, to obtain, if possible, complete possession of the art in its matured state, and convey it at once to our own country.

It was highly important in the view of these gentlemen, that in the selection of an individual to be employed on so important and interesting a mission, they should look for one possessed of superior literary qualifications, and fitted in other respects to do justice to the cause in which they were about to embark. Fortunately they were not without the means of filling this important post in an ample manner. The Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, the present principal of the institution at Hartford, was, even at that time distinguished among the sons of Yale College, for talents and scholarship, and had filled an important post in the department of instruction in that celebrated institution. As to the literary qualifications demanded, he was every way worthy, and what was more, his heart was deeply in the cause. And his character as a scholar, a philosopher, and a philanthropist, has since reflected honour on those individuals who originally sustained his efforts, and gave efficacy to his zeal. Not

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less has the wise and ever to be praised caution of the founders of that institution, in securing the very best means of instruction for their pupils at the *outset*, been fully justified and rewarded by the transcendent success which has attended their course of instruction, and by the full confidence with which they have inspired the governments of most of the New-England states, and the benevolent and literary public generally. This, I am aware, is not the place for eulogy, perhaps not even a passing tribute; although if an excuse should be found for me in the circumstance that two individuals, united to me by the nearest ties of blood, have been released from that dark and unhappy bondage of the mind by his means, then indeed I might be tolerated in pausing for a moment to testify those feelings of gratitude with which myself and all those of my family, must ever pronounce the name of Gallaudet, to be hereafter, I doubt not, adorned with the enviable title of benefactor of the American deaf and dumb.

In 1815, means being contributed by a few individuals in Hartford, Mr. Gallaudet was enabled to visit Europe. Obstacles were found to his progress in England, and he resorted to Paris. He was hospitably received by the amiable Sicard; the doors of the school were freely opened to him, and with every possible facility for improvement, he commenced the acquisition of his new profession. While there, he succeeded in effecting an arrangement with the celebrated Mr. Laurent Clerc, to come to America, and labour conjointly with him in the task of establishing and conducting an institution for the deaf and dumb, on Sicard's plan. That gentleman was preeminently qualified to be the ally of Mr. Gallaudet, in such an undertaking. Himself deaf and dumb, he had received a complete education under Sicard, and at the time of his leaving France with Mr. Gallaudet, had been for eight years a professor in the school of his master. He is the most distinguished pupil of Sicard. Thus reinforced, Mr. Gallaudet returned to America in August 1816. Contributions were obtained in various parts of the country, and the institution commenced its actual operations in April 1817, with Mr. Gallaudet as principal, aided by Mr. Clerc. The success which has attended the progress of that institution to the present time, is sufficiently well known.

Was it not far better thus expeditiously to introduce an improved system at once into the school, than to keep the teachers groping their way with only the feeble light which they might strike out by their own exertions, aided by such treatises as are published on the subject? Will the candid and enlightened

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friends of the deaf and dumb believe, that written treatises can convey an adequate idea of those thousands of varying gestures and changing attitudes and evanescent expressions of the countenance, which form the language, so as to form a substitute for direct intercourse with the actual teacher, who is complete master of his art, or a course of study in an institution, where that art is in constant exercise ?

Justice to the Hartford institution requires it to be stated, that what was originally freely received, it has always been ready freely to impart. Accordingly, the various applications which have been made to that institution for aid and instruction, have, to its lasting honor, been promptly and generously met.

In 1821, the directors of the Pennsylvania institution for the deaf and dumb, were in want of teachers, and not suffering feelings of local pride to have an undue preponderance over them while engaged in the holy cause of benevolence ; and knowing that the institution at Hartford was in full and successful operation with a strong corps of teachers, they determined to apply there for aid. That application was successful beyond their most sanguine expectations. Mr. Clerc was released immediately for the purpose of taking charge of the school at Philadelphia, having in view the double object of instructing the pupils and of qualifying the other teachers in their profession. In 1822, Mr. Clerc returned, and was succeeded by Mr. Lewis Weld, who was a graduate of Yale College, and had for several years enjoyed the advantages of a residence in the same institution with Messrs. Gallaudet and Clerc, and had acquired his profession from them. He has since presided over the institution at Philadelphia, with distinguished ability and success. The gentlemen who are associated with him as teachers, have all distinguished merit as scholars, and are graduates of our most respectable colleges, with the exception of one, who was a pupil of the Hartford Asylum. The directors and teachers of the Pennsylvania institution have always kept their standard high in the department of instruction, and the good effects are to be seen in the improvement of their pupils.

Concerning the institution for the deaf and dumb in Kentucky, I am acquainted with but few details ; but the most happy results may be expected from the judicious course pursued by the directors of that establishment in sending the present principal, Mr. Jacobs, to be previously qualified by a residence in the Hartford school.

I would remark, that it is by no means necessary for every

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teacher who may be employed in any one school, to be previously at the expense and trouble of going abroad to qualify himself. If the system is once fairly introduced, the teachers who come in afterwards can be qualified on the spot. Let the scion be fairly engrafted, and it will itself put forth new shoots.

It would naturally be expected by the friends of the deaf and dumb, that the directors of institutions in giving accounts of their schools, would inform the public concerning the qualifications of their teachers, and how and where they became possessed of their curious and interesting art. And in the reports of most of the deaf and dumb institutions, these matters are all set forth, and with a minuteness of detail which indicates a high degree of confidence on the part of the directors, that they have teachers whose qualifications will challenge investigation. In a publication, however, made by the New-York institution professing to be a history of the rise and progress of that institution, there is a remarkable silence preserved on this subject. We are hardly told that at one date one person was appointed teacher, at another, another, &c. A reader would rather be led to infer, from passages in some of their publications, that no particular previous qualification was deemed necessary in those who may enter on the business of teaching the deaf and dumb.

In the passages alluded to, the public is informed, that any person possessing good sense and common industry, may make himself a teacher, by consulting the books written by Sicard. We are assured that the teachers of the New-York school, by following the path marked out by Sicard, have completely qualified themselves for their task, and have overcome all the difficulties in their way. We are repeatedly informed, that they have never been out of New-York for instruction, and that they have pioneered the way through all the difficulties of the case, and those who would qualify themselves to be teachers, are directed to study the works of Sicard. I cannot conceive of doctrines having a more pernicious influence upon the cause of the deaf and dumb in our country, than the doctrines which I have alluded to, and which are promulgated in the publications of the New-York institution. And some of the statements are to me, I confess, unintelligible. It is stated that the teachers of the New-York school followed the methods pointed out by Sicard; and it is also stated, that they have pioneered the way. Is it meant that they are both followers and leaders? It is also stated, that with them, instruction is no more a matter of experiment, and that there are no more difficulties to overcome.

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It has been my lot, from early childhood, to be intimately conversant with the deaf and dumb, and to witness the assiduous efforts of an honoured parent, to impart instruction to two beloved children thus afflicted, with a success, which, though limited, was such as to excite the admiration of many intelligent friends, until those events took place, which brought to our country the means of affording ample and efficient instruction to the deaf and dumb. Subsequently to that era, I have been almost constantly in scenes, where the whole subject was a matter of deep solicitude and diligent inquiry ; and have had much intercourse with gentlemen of acute and intelligent minds, who had enjoyed the best opportunities for acquiring this profession, and who are still engaged in cultivating it with the most untiring zeal and perseverance ;—but never, before, did I hear of any who flattered themselves with having arrived at that point in their career, where there were no more difficulties to be overcome, no more improvements or experiments to be made. And I am sure I hazard nothing in saying, that the most intelligent teachers in Europe and America, would declare that they were at this moment engaged in overcoming difficulties, and studying improvements. As to the doctrine, that any person may make himself a teacher of the deaf and dumb, provided he have common industry and good sense, and studies Sicard's works, we may infer from it, that the only difficulty is the want of a translation of those works into English. If that is the sole obstacle remaining, why may it not be speedily removed, and instruction carried to the very doors of the people, in all sections of the country ? If persons of good sense and common industry may make themselves teachers, why may we not expect to see schools opened in every village, where the population around would furnish a number of pnpils ? Surely, persons of sense and industry may be found, and the works of Sicard may be bought and read.

I have before alluded to the inadequacy of books to convey a knowledge of the language of signs, and do not intend to go farther into that subject now, but will barely remark, that any intelligent person will find himself beset with not a few difficulties, were he to attempt to learn, from written descriptions, only, all the motions of a fencing master or a teacher of gymnastics. But all these, sir, as your own observation may perhaps have shown you, are but a drop in the ocean, when compared with the countless numbers and ceaseless variations of the movements of the body, hands, head, eyes, countenance, &c. &c., which are

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required in the peculiar language of the deaf and dumb. But even the skilful and ready use of the language of signs, is far from being all that is required in a teacher. In the process of improvement which this art has undergone, a great variety of exercises have been invented, to be employed in the course of instruction. A teacher must not only know the language of signs, but if he would not be behind in his profession, he must be acquainted with all the various exercises, the contrivances which are resorted to, and the ingenious modes of illustration which have been devised to aid the pupils in the more difficult parts of their progress. The mere learning of signs is not sufficient. To learn signs is one thing; to learn the principles and practice of the system of instruction, is another. It may be inquired, whether these two distinct subjects are not distinctly treated by Sicard in his two works, 'Theory of Signs,' and 'Course of Instruction.' The 'Theory of Signs' is theoretical, and not practical; and the 'Course of Instruction,' though it will always interest the curious reader, will be found insufficient to form perfectly qualified teachers. It may be asked, how then did the teachers at New-York acquire signs? To a great extent, probably, from Hartford. When it is asserted that the teachers acquired all their knowledge in New-York, we must presume that assertion refers only to the teachers *now* in the school; as it is a fact that the gentleman who was first employed as a teacher in the New-York school, was for a year connected with the Asylum at Hartford, in a capacity which led him to have daily intercourse with the pupils, which intercourse was of course carried on by signs. It is impossible to conceive that he could have been in such circumstances, without acquiring very many of their signs. As the sphere of his duties was not in the school room, but in a peculiar manner out of it, it is not at all probable that he acquired the system of instruction. It appears by the dates given in the New-York reports, that the present teachers were associated with that gentleman nearly two years. Neither the statement that the teachers have pioneered their way, nor the statement that they have followed the plan laid down in Sicard's books, will allow us to suppose that the system was obtained from Hartford. Whence then has the knowledge which the New-York teachers possess, been derived? They have arrived at it either by pioneering the way themselves, or by following in the footsteps of Sicard as they are traced out in his works. But those works were published many years ago; the Course of Instruction in 1800, and a second edition in 1803, and

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the Theory of Signs in 1808. It is stated in one of the New-York publications, that their system is substantially the same with that pursued in other schools for the deaf and dumb in this country. Are the gentlemen prepared to make such a statement, if, as they are very careful to inform us, they have never been out of New-York to inquire? Is it probable that no improvements have been made in this department of philosophy in twenty years? Can we suppose, that with all the talent and labour which have been expended in this department of education, on both sides of the Atlantic, it has remained stationary? Is it not more probable that it has made very great advances? If that be the case, how can the gentlemen at New-York possess the means of knowing what the present state of the system may be in other institutions, if they refuse to go away from home to inquire? I would respectfully ask, if this staying at home to teach ourselves as well as we can, is in accordance with the spirit of rapid improvement which marks the present age? Does the chemist, the surgeon, the naturalist, or the engineer, disdain to quit his own city to go in search knowledge? Do not the votaries of science avail themselves eagerly of the knowledge and experience of others, and seize on every means in their power to hasten their own advancement? Is it in the instruction of the deaf and dumb that we may be indulged in staying at home, and gratify ourselves in attempting to pioneer our own way? On the contrary, in a benevolent undertaking of this kind, in which we must depend on the charity of individuals and the liberality of the government, are we not called on by true economy and an honourable regard to those whose charity we ask, to adopt the most efficacious and expeditious mode of making their contributions tell upon the object? Does not justice to the claims of other objects of charitable support, so numerous at the present day, warn us to be careful that we make the most of what is bestowed upon us, by sacrificing feelings of pride, and availing ourselves of all the light and aid within our reach? Is it not the dictate of humanity, that when we would extend relief in any quarter, and an excellent mode of doing it is pointed out, we should avail ourselves of that mode most expeditiously? If in the midst of darkness there has arisen a great light, shall we bid those who would be cheered by its beams, wait while we endeavour to kindle another for them? If a fountain bubbles at my feet, and sends forth its refreshing streams, at which my child is eager to slake his thirst, shall I bid him wait while I shall dig for water?

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The instruction of the deaf and dumb, though it may appear mysterious nay almost magical to a spectator unacquainted with principles, may, notwithstanding, be acquired like other professions, if the proper means be used. It is not in itself more mysterious than any other philosophical pursuit. Every part of philosophy is a mystery to the ignorant. Until we make it our study, the *law* appears to us a mystery—so does chemistry—so does anatomy; and so it is with the instruction of the deaf and dumb. To the acquisition of any of these professions, there may be nearer and more circuitous routes. True wisdom directs us to that which conducts most expeditiously to the end in view.

The instruction of the deaf and dumb is a subject which has occupied very much of my attention; and I have been a deeply interested spectator of all the movements which have taken place in relation to it in our country, with the exception of some, in which I was an agent rather than a spectator. The measures which were adopted in the New-York institution in the department of instruction, were such as excited in me feelings of deep regret, as I considered the tendency of those measures to be of a nature to depress the standard of a most interesting department of education; an employment every way worthy of the most brilliant talents, extensive learning, and profound philosophy. The feelings and opinions of a single individual, however, might be of small consequence in the community; and mine, probably, would never have been expressed in this manner, had I not been placed in circumstances which called on me to speak. In the conscientious discharge of this duty, I have laid before you my honest convictions on this subject, with frankness, well knowing that with you, sir, my *motives* will not stand in need of defence; and feeling assured that to you it will be quite unnecessary to be at pains to prove that I have the good of the deaf and dumb most deeply at heart. And permit me, sir, to close this communication with my sincere wishes that all the exertions which may be made for the benefit of the deaf and dumb in the state of New-York, may be crowned with complete success.

All which is respectfully submitted by your

Most obedient humble servant,

CHARLES DILLINGHAM.

Pittsfield, April 6, 1828.

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EDUCATION OF INFANT CHILDREN.

[It is with peculiar pleasure that we offer to our readers the following queries and the very satisfactory answers by which they are accompanied. The whole article is transcribed from a very interesting pamphlet entitled 'An Exposition of the Principles on which the System of Infant Education is conducted. Second Philadelphia edition. Philadelphia 1827.'

Since the commencement of the Journal, we have seen no work on early education so true to the human mind, and so admirably adapted to the formation of character, as this modest little treatise. We are sorry that it has not found its way to this quarter of the country, till so long after its publication; and we shall be happy, if, by copying its contents, we can contribute to their wider dissemination among parents and teacher.

The following preface is prefixed to the pamphlet, by the American editor.]

As many of our citizens are unacquainted with the nature and objects of Infant Schools, and therefore do not duly appreciate their advantages, the following little treatise is republished from the original English edition, as explanatory of the system itself, and of its salutary effects on the parents and children, and ultimately on society at large.

Such of our citizens as are desirous to rescue an interesting portion of the rising generation from early habits of vice and immorality—to imbue their tender minds with principles of virtue, which may germinate as they increase in years, and guide them in their progress through life,—at the same time to communicate such elements of useful knowledge, as are suited to their tender capacities; are earnestly recommended to visit the school in Chester street, where the children exhibit one of the most interesting spectacles to be found in Philadelphia. It is impossible to behold from one hundred to one hundred and fifty interesting children, from two to six years old, assembled together in an orderly, regular manner, clean, and comfortably clad in general, cheerful and happy, acquiring useful instruction and virtuous impressions—and to contrast the results of this system with those of an education in the streets, where they would be every hour under the influence of the worst examples, and contaminating each other; without being satisfied that there is no mode in which our citizens can more effectually advance the best

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interests of society, than by a liberal support of that institution, and enabling the society to extend the system to other quarters of the city.

Philadelphia, December 6, 1827.

Queries.

What is the immediate use, and what are the subordinate uses, of an Infant School?—Its immediate use is to put the infant heart under the influence of an awakening process, and then to direct its understanding to useful, intellectual, and moral pursuits, by the most easy and natural gradations, and the most endearing methods.

Its subordinate uses are to relieve and assist industrious mothers, by easing them of the burden of their younger children during the hours of gainful exertions, thereby affording them the means of pursuing their various avocations without any family drawback, while the children themselves are rescued from the *neglect*, the *personal danger*, and the influence of *pernicious examples*, and *misdirected attachments* to which they would otherwise be exposed.

What are its first requisites, as regards efforts and means?—To awaken a desire in the infant heart to seek moral and intellectual improvement; by early and lasting activities to excite virtuous attachments, and inspire an utter detestation for immorality; in short, to quicken in the rising generation the universal desire productive of a serious and rational education, by inviting them to go forward in the unsophisticated paths of nature, aided by the force of conscience, and the unerring lights of divine revelation.

Is it for very young children of both sexes?—It is, and if we weigh the question either in a religious, moral, or intellectual point of view, we must allow it to be quite as necessary for girls as for boys, in whose education, at least in their earlier years, there should be no difference. Indeed, if we consider the great and powerful influence females have on society; if we look forward to that period when they shall become mothers, to whom the important office of developing the hearts and minds of their tender offspring, in their first opening, most properly and immediately belongs, we must admit that it is not only requisite that their own hearts should be morally and religiously habituated and attached, but that their understandings also should be stored with knowledge; knowledge which at that important period, if judiciously selected, may be imparted with every advantage to

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recommend it, and which would certainly be listened to with eager attention, and imbibed with avidity.

How does it differ in spirit and practice from the common schools? By a deviation from all apparent coercion and restraint; by promoting a spirit of cheerfulness, reciprocal kindness, and mutual affection; by causing a self suppression of every symptom of invidious emulation; and by observing real objects as the best and most demonstrative means of conveying solid instruction; in fact by an adherance to external and internal nature.

What good influence is it expected to have on the child's moral condition, or more properly its heart?—That of awakening it to, and confirming it in, moral and social attachments.

What good consequences can result to the parents from it, in a moral or physical respect?—In a physical point of view, their being relieved from the care and charge of their younger children gives them leisure freely to attend to their domestic duties, to go out to labour, or gainfully pursue in-door employment, and thereby add to their family comforts. In a moral point of view, the relief thus afforded divests parents of that petulance and irritability produced by the children's interruptions, and teasing importunities during the working hours of the day; and the children, instead of experiencing scowling looks, and being greeted with harsh tones, are received with smiles of pleasure, and accents of renewed affection, on their return from school. Finally, and I affirm it from actual experience, the religious culture they receive is indirectly given to, and operates on the older branches of the family, who deeply feeling the artless censure of innocent lips, are deterred from uttering or doing any thing of an immoral tendency in their presence.

What kind of persons are fit as educators of the best dispositions, tempers, and inclinations of children?—They who possess mild and even tempers, and self command; are patient, fond of children, know how to conciliate their affections, and elevate their attachments; will aid the expansion of their powers by the most easy, natural, and endearing methods, and can convey knowledge in the way of amusement.

Should the schools consist of a hundred and fifty children or less number?—This in a great measure must depend on circumstances; yet I conceive it correct to say, that if the children be of an equal age, or nearly so, and the schools be sufficiently spacious, two hundred might with great propriety be admitted; for such associations teach children to know, understand, and love

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each other, and lay the foundation of unanimity, reciprocal attachment, and future happiness from mutual support.

Are active thinking women as competent to the duty of the development of infant sympathy as men?—If of a mild, gentle, and forbearing disposition, and possessing self command, I conceive their assistance of considerable advantage; but as principals, their physical powers are inadequate to that exertion required in an infant school, and for which active intelligent men are far better adapted.

What kind of a building is proper?—That which is lightsome, airy, and spacious; it should be dry, kept remarkably clean, be well ventilated, and have a play-ground.

Where should the school be placed?—If in a town, in the centre of a populous poor district; but in all cases as central as possible, and, as far as circumstances will permit, in a free, open, and airy situation.

What is the discipline that is to be observed in this mode of training, to banish slavish fear?—Familiar and affectionate converse, gentle and paternal usage; in other words, the action and reaction of heart on heart; for 'Love, and love only, is the loan for love.'

To what age should the children be retained in the schools?—To that of seven;* and, if practicable, it would be well to have another school on the spot to receive them after that age, which establishment should be conducted on similar but enlarged principles.

What are the best dimensions for a school room, and how is it to be fitted up?—It should be, at least, eighty feet long, and of a proportionate width; have a rising platform or gallery at one end, and be furnished with lesson-posts, stools, benches, rostrum, master's desk, slates, pictures, alphabets, spelling and reading lessons, bell, whistle, pointers, cubes, maps, hoops, swings, and pieces of wood in the form of bricks.†

[The remainder of this interesting pamphlet we must postpone till next number.]

* This point must, like several others, be accommodated to circumstances. In places where primary schools are already established, and admit children at the age of four years, (as is the case in the city of Boston,) the infant schools must necessarily be restricted to children under that age.—*Ed.*

† More simplicity of materials might perhaps be desirable, especially at the commencement of an infant school.—*Ed.*

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FEMALE EDUCATION SUBSEQUENT TO THE PERIOD OF GOING TO SCHOOL.

[The present article, our readers will perceive, is a continuation of the subject introduced in a former number.]

The most important part of a female's education, self improvement, after leaving school, is yet to be considered. The complete success of this must depend on the previous school education. I have spoken of the intellectual preparation by means of the art of drawing, the study of languages, arithmetic, and especially by a course of reading,—ever under the guidance of the superior mind, which the instructer of a school ought to possess.

But intellectual preparation is not all. The success of an attempt at self cultivation will mainly depend on the moral preparation. This cannot be too deeply impressed on the minds of those who have the guardianship of female education. A system of government founded on any principles but those strictly moral and religious, is a decided injury to the female mind. The motives on which girls act at school, should be such as retirement and reflection will strengthen in their power over the mind. This consideration is to be urged even upon those who have not very refined views of the moral relations of human life. We would say that *boys* should not be governed by any motives but the highest, even from the beginning. But some men, for a great while to come, will overlook the highest relations in which their sons stand, and fix their attention upon those they bear to society immediately, and in a pecuniary and temporal point of view, and will have them pushed on to intellectual eminence, if not by gentle and moral means, by means equivocal—so that they be efficient. The least reflecting of mankind, however,—the most wordly,—inevitably think with more refinement, when woman is the subject. Woman must be disinterested, 'pure in the last recesses of her mind,' *even to* satisfy the wishes of him who looks at existence in its lowest relations. She must be affectionate, lively, interested in what is before her, uncalculating in her generosity, and deeply sincere. She must have quick perception of the delicate and beautiful, taste, and facility of execution. And all this results from attention, vivid conception, memory, judgment, combined with the habit of acting from conscience and feeling, and not from

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emulation, or ambition, or love of display, or any of the forms of vanity.

And can conscience be developed with the exercise of the powers of the mind? Let no instructer despair of it. The discovery of its own powers is one of the happiest discoveries that the mind makes. On the lessons of every day many faculties are exercised; let these faculties be pointed out to the child at the time; let her be told what powers she exercises, and connect the instance, if possible, with instances of the highest exercise of those powers, which biography or individual recollection can furnish, and you will give the child great interest in this investigation of her own mind. And ever speak of the mind reverently, as the gift of God, as the handmaid of virtue, the receiver of revelation; the depository of the blessed influences of that power which brought immortality to light; and conscience will wake up, the strongest stimulus of intellect.

Let the instructer feel that no time is lost which is devoted to this part of education. Let it come in at all times; in the midst of recitations, in the midst of study-hours. It is worth all things else for *intellectual* as well as for moral improvement.

With these preliminaries as to preparation, we now proceed to the method of self cultivation.

History is the first subject that claims attention. We take it for granted that some interest has been given to this subject at school, and in earlier life; that there is some knowledge of biography; that Homer and other common and interesting books have been read; that the fables of the mythological age are familiar; and that some of the popular and lighter historical works have occasionally varied the course of reading, which is a component part of our school education.

Individual taste and convenience should decide whether the history of our own country or ancient history should first be pursued. On the former we have many valuable works. The Life of Columbus by Irving, Robertson's America, Botta's American War, being among the most agreeable and popular works, are easily accessible. A profound student will find many more, if disposed to inquire into minutiæ; and the press will doubtless send forth new works constantly, on a subject which will perpetually present itself in new lights to the American mind.

The first works to be read in a course of ancient history should doubtless be the Old Testament and Josephus. These furnish the only connected train of events; and on this history

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should be founded a simple scale of chronology, marking the centuries by events or the names of distinguished individuals. Josephus will throw much light upon the history of the Old Testament. The latter should be used with a reference to its great design, in order to give a correct view even of the history it contains. There is no greater desideratum in school books than a work showing how the Old Testament is to be understood and read, and how the historical facts are to be separated from the allegories and prophecies.

The next most interesting department of ancient history, is probably the history of the orientals. But here our literature is meagre. We hope it will not be long before the researches of the Germans in this interesting field, will be made intelligible to English readers. The 'Asiatic Researches' of Sir William Jones, stands almost alone, as a popular work on this subject.

The history of Greece next claims our attention. Of modern works, Mitford and Heeren are the most interesting; but those who have access to Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon, are earnestly recommended to peruse those works first.

Plutarch, and the current history of Rome, are probably familiar to our students before the present course commences. Ferguson and Niebuhr are dry. Perhaps it will not be long before some more popular works on Roman history than the latter, and at the same time more authentic than Plutarch, will come before the public. The native Roman historians can hardly be recommended as sources, to be relied on;—the Roman principle of self aggrandizement affecting their narratives much more deeply with false colouring, than did the reputed vanity of the Geeks their history. We hope the religious faith of our students to have a moral foundation too strong, to fear any detriment from the perusal of Gibbon, whose 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' follows next in regular course.

The middle ages constitute perhaps the most important period of history. But in no period is it so difficult to trace a regular course. There is a multitude of books biographical and historical, all of which are interesting, and any of which might serve to carry on the connexion of events. Hallam's Middle Ages, Robertson's Charles V., Roscoe's Lives of Leo X, and Lorenzo di Medici, the life of Erasmus, are familiar to the public, and can be found in almost every library.

After some general view of the middle ages, the history of England, by Hume, with occasional references to Lingard or Turner, claims attention preeminently. On the history of Scot-

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land, Robertson will be found most interesting, Chalmers most minute.

It will not be found so easy for a merely English reader to find satisfactory works on the history of continental Europe; but a connected view of the history of the Church would throw light upon the general history of the continent, sufficient for common purposes.

This outline will appear very superficial to some persons, and quite formidable to others. There is still another manner in which the progress of society and the human mind can be studied, and to some minds it will be much more attractive. This is studying the history of sciences. The history of Astronomy by Bailly, accessible to the reader of French, (and which ought to be made accessible to the English reader by translation,) is a work of great fascination; the history of *intellectual philosophy*; the history of *music*; and the female reader need not be alarmed if we include the history of the *revolutions of Medical Science*, translated from the French of Cabannis, by Henderson. The works of the Schlegels, on literature in general, and on dramatic literature; the history of 'Roman literature,' and of 'Chivalry' by Mills; Sismondi on the literature of the South of Europe, (and we hope it will not be long before his promised work on the literature of the North may be added to our list;) together with Madame de Stael's 'Germany' and 'Influence of Literature on Society,' and 'French Revolution' will give a connected view of the history of European mind, and make the study of political history interesting, even if it were not so before.

But it may be that individual taste or circumstances would lead rather to the cultivation of some science in detail, than to history in general. It is always desirable to be acquainted with some science or sciences thoroughly—astronomy, or chemistry, or mineralogy, or botany, or especially the science of mind. In the former departments, public lectures occasionally give impulse and aid: in the latter, such works as Tucker's Light of Nature, Brown's Philosophy, Stewart's Dissertations, are accessible to all.

But severe study should occupy a few hours of every day. Some time should be set apart to review and keep in mind the acquisitions of school, especially if they were languages. A very little daily attention will keep up the knowledge of a foreign language, when by total neglect the labour of years may be lost in an incredibly short time. It will be fortunate if there are younger sisters, whose lessons are to be attended to, and even

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if they are to receive exclusive attention, in some one department, from our student.

General reading, too, should always have some portion of attention. Spencer, Shakspeare, Milton, the English prose writers of Queen Anne's and of George the Third's time; the best periodical works,* and among modern poets we would name preeminently the author of the 'Excursion.'

The above course of reading is hastily drawn up, and is offered with some diffidence. There are some minds which hardly need any guidance; and many have the best advisers at hand. For such we do not write; there still are many, however, who are destitute of literary friends, that may find the above hints useful.

E. N. Q.

REVIEW.

Prospectus of Morris Academy, Litchfield, (South Farms,) Connecticut. Litchfield. S. S. Smith. 1827. 8vo. pp. 25.

Among the many forms of practical benevolence, those which aim at the moral and intellectual elevation of the young, by means of early instruction, claim a high place in the order of human effort. The immense power of institutions for elementary instruction, whose systems of discipline are formed from a just view of the human being, and which are conducted by those intelligently interested in the progress of things, can hardly be estimated in the present state of humanity. And that the public attention is becoming more and more awake to the interests of early education, affords much encouragement and hope to those who are devoted to the best good of society. Our public journals make frequent mention of the establishment of schools of an improved character, in various parts of our States. That all, however, which thus obtrude their claims to improvement upon the public, are worthy of their whole patronage as such, we do not pretend to say. There is, in education, as in many other things, a

* We cannot help noticing as distinguished among these the 'Library of useful Knowledge.'

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great deal of quackery and pretension. The busy, restless spirit of the age calls them forth; but it likewise elicits much that is sound and useful. It keeps observation and inquiry awake; and, indeed, is inseparable from improvement. By means of this free expression of the common mind, (in our country, the true power of reform,) individual opinions are compared, and the cause of improvement promoted. Men are brought in contact with each other, and find their common interests to be one and the same. By this freedom of inquiry, this comparison of opinions, it seems to us, that the great subject of education is obtaining a deeper and wider interest, and that the perception of defect in the common modes of instruction and discipline, is every day becoming more and more extensive; and we enjoy in prospect, the ultimate results to which this perception must lead, a wider diffusion of intelligence and happiness among all ranks of the community.

The establishment of schools of a primary character, is, we think, one of the most direct and efficient means by which these great results can be accelerated. These should be established upon a large and generous basis—conducted by instructers who contemplate the gradual and harmonious developement and invigoration of all the powers and faculties of their pupils, and who regard education, as a coure of preparation, not only for the intelligent discharge of the duties of this stage of progress, but likewise of those pertaining to a higher, and nobler period of interminable advancement. Conducted in the true spirit of christian sympathy, schools of this character would exert an amazing influence upon society. They would be associated in the minds of the community, with objects of the highest intellectual and moral grandeur.

Of schools of this elevated character we as yet have but few. The progress of thought is still too exclusive. Here and there, however, we find individuals, entertaining elevated ideas of the general subject of education, and who, deeply sensible of the necessity of immediate reform, are attempting to elevate the common sentiment, by experiments of a liberal and generous character. To the results of these experiments we look with great interest. By them—let us not be deemed visionary—the moral problem is to be solved, 'whether man can be governed and yet be free.' Upon the success with which our children are instructed in the principles of intellectual and moral liberty, and the physical habits which these may induce, depend the character of our country, and ultimately that of the world. In proportion, then, to the

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immensity of the power with which we are entrusted, as guardians of the young, should be the energy of our exertions, to secure them their rich inheritance, an inheritance of which our own negligence only can deprive them. By the power which we may wield through elementary schools,—a power silent, and almost imperceptible in its operations, but sure in its results,—the rising members of our country may be rendered intelligent, useful, and happy. How important, then, that the whole energy of this power, be directed to the benefit of the young,—that their expanding intellects, receive the perfect aid of early and generous protection and culture.

As exerting this happy and this powerful influence, upon the interests of society, we regard all attempts in elementary instruction, as worthy of a hallowed and sublime sympathy. Their moral power and moral grandeur elevate our conceptions; and we return to the realities around us, but to be told how much, very much, is to be done, before the young of our beloved country, can universally enjoy the rich blessings to which they are entitled. We regard those, who in this department of instruction, are successful, as the most efficient benefactors of mankind. This is indeed a noble sphere for moralizing the world: in the gradations of human influence such individuals are eminently favoured. Commencing education, with the very dawn of infant existence, they may entertain the pleasing hope of accompanying their charge in their juvenile progress, and conducting them to places of honour and usefulness.

With sentiments like these, we are pleased to find instructers commencing their labours in the important department of instruction. We rejoice to see this hitherto much neglected sphere of good—this spring time of life, claiming a degree of attention in some measure proportionate to its immense importance; and we hope the public attention may ere long become still more generally awake to its claims.

The institution, whose name stands at the head of this article, seems to us, to possess that character which the common wants of education among us demand. Its design is to communicate instruction in the elementary sciences, in the spirit of the inductive, or Pestalozzian method. It has now been in operation for more than two years, and successfully encountered every opposition, and obtained a favourable acceptance upon the common mind, in its vicinity. From the Prospectus of this school, we purpose to present some of the ideas of the instructer, Mr. James D. Chapman.

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We commence with the second paragraph of his 'Preliminary Remarks'—

Were the science of educaton, (if, indeed, such, in its present state it can be called,) like many other sciences, based on fixed principles; principles arrived at, after a long and tedious course of demonstration or experiment, any effort to prove them false, might justly be accounted foolhardy. But such is not the fact. The science of education, at least, of elementary education, is, to a considerable extent, in its rude state, while many others have advanced to some degree of perfection. With regard to them, we are, in general, far better able to judge as to the results that may be expected from the use of given means, than we are with regard to that of education. No books on this subject, considered as a science, have, as yet, appeared Thus nearly all the experience of our predecessors in the business of instruction, has been lost to the world. Now and then, perhaps, an idea, suggested by some able teacher, has floated down to us on the stream of time. But with this exception the subject is all a chaos, a dark and pathless wilderness, through which the instructer must make his way, with scarcely a ray of light to brighten his course.

Fortunately for the community at large, no less than for those engaged in the business of teaching, the rubbish, under which this subject has so long been buried, is beginning to be removed. The principles of the human mind are better understood. The public are beginning to discard notions which the research and discoveries of modern times have shown to be wrong, and to entertain others, far more rational, and more in accordance with the spirit of the age. Yet, after all, the work of reformation can hardly be said to have begun.

The writer, on a subject of such vast moment, begs leave to point out what he considers defects in the present systems of elementary education. Yet he would not be understood as condemning these systems altogether. On the contrary, in the language of an eminent statesman, he considers our common schools, imperfect as they are, 'the Palladium of our freedom.' It is indeed much to the praise of human intellect, that it can accomplish so much as it does, if we consider the discouragements under which it labours through unhappy methods of elementary instruction. All this goes to show how little we know of mind, or of what under proper regimen, it can be enabled to effect. But because mind appears to such advantage, even under all the unfavourable circumstances attending our common school systems; because it now and then presents a sparkling surface, even when we do so little to separate it from the dross in which it lies enveloped, shall we make no further efforts to purify and polish it?'

The writer next proceeds to consider the general neglect of elementary education, and in the following paragraphs attempts to establish the truth of the general proposition, 'that improvements in the science of education, have not kept pace with those of the other sciences, and the arts.'

'This will appear, first, if we compare the present teachers of our common schools, with those employed, for instance twenty years ago. It is acknowledged that some new books and a few new branches of study have been introduced into these schools, since that period. But this, so long as corresponding qualifications are not required of the teachers, is surely not *reformation*, and is indeed of very little use. For what can improved instruments effect in the hands of an artist who has not studied their use and application? Now it is believed that teachers in general, possess but little more practical acquaintance with

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their business, considered as a science, than they had at the time of which we have spoken, notwithstanding such vast accessions have been made since that period to almost every department of human knowledge. In availing ourselves of the aid of professional men, we are careful to employ those who have imbibed the spirit of improvement that charaterizes the age, in order that we may reap the benefit of their constantly accumulating knowledge, and skill.

The same is true also of the arts.

We do not apply to an *old fashioned* artist, for a garment or a vehicle, or a piece of household furniture.

Ask a manufacturer, (no matter of what,) if he is willing that all the knowledge which he has gained of his art even within the last ten years, should be struck at once from his mind, and he would answer, in all probability, that this would ruin him. Yet with regard to schoolmasters, the inquiry seems not once to be made, whether they be *new fashioned* or *old fashioned*, or whether they have any fashion about them, if we except a *cheap* fashion.

To illustrate still further our proposition, we may mention the books, used in our common schools.

'The character of these books has varied very little during the last twenty years, though we remarked above that some new ones have been introduced. The writer, however, would not understood, as condemning any book merely because it is old, or as approving, simply from the circumstance of its being new. With so important a subject, as that of elementary education, novelty, considered simply as such, ought to have the least to do. Yet since the instruments of the various arts are continually improving, since in tilling our ground, for instance, we do not use all the uncouth utensils of husbandry that were used a century ago, but are desirous of availing ourselves of all the improvements that have been made in them since that time;—why should we rest content with all our old school books, which may be termed the instruments of knowledge, even when better have since been written, and are at hand.

The process of *teaching* also confirms the truth of the above proposition.

It seems to have varied but little during the last half century. While the method of communicating knowledge in many of the sciences, such as Law, Medicine, Theology, History, &c., as well as in the arts, has been, within this period so vastly improved. The same dull routine of learning words, without learning their meaning, still prevails.

'This process cannot be said to accord with the order of nature. Nature would have us learn first those things which are most necessary for us to know. She early acquaints us with the simplest properties of bodies and the most obvious of her own operations. She would have us begin with the elements of knowledge, and proceed from the more plain and manifest truths, to the more abstruse and difficult.

'It is true that children are remarkable for remembering words, even when they do not attach to them any meaning. This is said to be a wise provision of nature, since it greatly aids them in learning language. We often hear it remarked that children possess a better memory than adults, and under certain limitations, it is true; it is strictly so with regard to words. Hence an undue importance is attached to this faculty, and hence also we can easily account for the general custom of cramming almost every species of elementary knowledge into the mind of the child through the memory. Parents and instructers look back upon their childhood, as a period when their memories were remarkably susceptible, of course knowledge must feel its way into the infant mind almost wholly through this medium. Thus, to use a borrowed metaphor, 'the memory becomes surcharged with a rude mass of indigestible matter.' Many teachers, indeed, seem to act on the supposition that mind is merely a passive receptacle, in which knowledge must be *poured*, as a fluid is poured into a vessel. The child is presented at once with abstract rules and propositions which its mind is utterly unable to grasp. The reason is that they were

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obtained originally at the expense of great labour and research. In forming them the energies of the most mature and able minds were put in requisition. They are not the steps but the results of long and complicated courses of reasoning, and are therefore wholly above the comprehension of a child. This, whatever established usage may say to the contrary, is a capital error in education. It is like taking a child, blindfolded, to the top of an eminence upon a ladder, uncovering the child's eyes and telling it to find its way down. Is this learning to ascend the eminence *ourselves*, as nature would teach us, by regular gradations? No more is the bare committing of rules to memory learning to reason, one of the chief things to be looked at in the great business of education.

Another fact which may serve to illustrate our proposition is, that children have been required, time out of mind to pronounce and spell words, of the meaning of which, they have not the remotest idea.

This, by leading the child to attend to the sound of the word merely, and not the sense, has a tendency rather to blunt than sharpen the powers of the understanding, and to induce a habit of listlessness and inattention, which often proves a serious injury to the pupil through life. An absurdity akin to this, it is believed, can hardly be found in any other science, or in any art. The practice seems to be directly at war with a spirit of philosophical inquiry and research, so necessary, would the instructer have his pupils become *thinking*, men and women.

A late writer has hazarded the assertion that 'the Spelling-book is the greatest barrier now existing to intellectual improvement.' 'The great reason,' as a sensible, though sarcastic writer observes, 'why men are so ignorant, is, that they are taught by this mechanical method,' "A method, we would add, which, like the destructive mildew, has blasted the unfolding germs of many a rising genius." It does appear to be wasting the energies of the youthful mind to keep it for months, and years, poring over words, to which it attaches no meaning, and which it may never see out of the spelling-book.

As further proof of our proposition, may be mentioned the erroneous idea, attached to the term education. While great pains have been taken, logically to define the terms denoting many other sciences, this term continues to be loose and indefinite. 'Education is understood to consist in the acquisition of knowledge. We believe that it does not consist in the acquisition of knowledge, but in the development of the mind.' But mind cannot be developed unless it be exercised about some object of knowledge; 'And subjects should be selected and arranged with reference to this object,' [development of mind.] In the system pursued in our common schools, memory seems to be almost the only faculty to improve which any direct efforts are made. This is not denying that the other faculties, from their intimate connexion with memory, receive, indirectly, more or less improvement. Memory is an important faculty, and ought, by all means, to receive its due share of attention. But is it not important also that children, along with memory, should acquire, soundness of judgment, clearness of comprehension, and vigour of thought? These qualities will be brought into requisition almost every day of their lives, more or less.

They are now left, in most instances, to be acquired by accident. This perhaps in part accounts for the fact, that so many are wanting in enterprize and energy, when they enter upon the duties of active life. It is granted that many are distinguished for these qualities, even under the present system of elementary education. There is a perceptible difference among uncultivated plants; yet who maintains that many, if indeed any of them, arrive to the degree of maturity and excellence, that they might have attained, under careful and judicious culture?'

The truth of these remarks will be readily admitted by all who

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have paid attention to the existing state of education, and the methods by which instruction is generally communicated, in our schools. We recommend the perusal of this pamphle, to all engaged in the practical instruction of elementary schools, as containing many valuable ideas, and calculated to promote the general cause of improvement in education. And we hope the writer will ere long give to the public the results of his mind and of his experience in the difficult art of teaching. Such information, in the present state of education, is much wanted; and we should be happy to use the Journal as a channel, for its general dissemination.

INTELLIGENCE.

ONTARIO FEMALE SEMINARY.

(From the Circular of the Trustees.)

The Summer Term of this Institution, will commence on the 16th day of June next. By a new arrangement, the department of Tuition will be under the direction of Mr. J. A. Brayton, as Principal, assisted by one male, and at least two female Teachers, of competency and experience. The literary acquirements of Mr. Brayton, and his reputation as a instructer, inspire the fullest confidence, that under his charge, the Ontario Female Seminay, will not be second to any School for Young Ladies in the United States.

The course of studies in this institution will embrace all the advantages of thorough instruction, in the principles of a good, practical English education, as well as the higher and more elegant branches taught in boarding schools of the first order—including Music, Drawing, and the French and Spanish Languages, for which separate Teachers will be employed. The method of teaching will combine the substantial benefits of the plan ordinarily pursued, with those modern improvements which experience has approved, as best adapted to enforce discipline, incite emulation, and fix habits of observation and attention. To this end, the system of mutual instruction will, to a limited extent, be introduced: but the employment of pupils as substitutes in the business of instruction, will not be resorted to as a relief to the task of the Instructer.

By a regulation of the '*Philosophical Institute of Canandaigua*,' pupils in the Seminary are gratuitously admitted to the benefits of Lectures and Experiments in that institution.

The Trustees are happy in being able to announce to the public, that Mr. Jeremiah Van Rennselaer and Lady, have consented to take charge of the Boarding-house, and the domestic concerns of the institution. Their eminent qualifications for this responsible situation are extensively known, and will be appreciated by their numerous friends in various parts of the state. In Mr. Van Rennselaer's family, the pupils will enjoy the most favourable opportunities for the improvement of their manners, and the cultivation of the best social

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and moral affections; and in confiding their daughters to the charge of Mrs. Van Rennselaer, parents at a distance, may feel the fullest assurance, that no care or tenderness will be wanting to supply the pleasures of home, and the benefits of maternal kindness, counsel, and protection.

The arrangement now contemplated, is intended to preserve a proper balance in the two-fold object of *Female Education*—the acquisition of substantial learning, and the cultivation of genteel accomplishments and graceful manners.

A *Primary Department*, for the instruction of pupils in the lower branches of education, will be connected with the institution, in which the monitorial system will be adopted to as great an extent as shall be deemed useful. A Lady of experience, and of the highest qualifications, has been engaged to conduct this department, under the supervision of Mr. Brayton.

The *Ontario Female Seminary* is incorporated by law, and the stockholders have erected, in an elevated and pleasant part of the village of Canandaigua, an elegant brick Edifice, three stories high, (including the basement.) 75 feet front, by 50 feet deep, to which they are now adding, (to be completed by the commencement of the term) a building of the same height, 50 feet by 30. These buildings are surrounded by spacious pleasure grounds, and are devoted exclusively to the purposes of the School and Boarding House. With these advantages, a location in one of the most delightful and healthy villages in the State, the Trustees hope, by unremitted attention to the interests of the School, to render it more extensively useful, and worthy of the most liberal patronage.

The price of Tuition will be 30 dollars a year and in that proportion for one or more terms.

J. D. Bemis, H. F. Penfield, Fr. Granger, J. C. Spencer, M. H. Sibley, Jared Wilson, James Lyon, Geo. Wilson, Alex. Duncan, Jr., Trustees.

Canandaigua, May, 1828.

PROVIDENCE HIGH SCHOOL.

Female Department.

[Many of our readers, are no doubt, familiar with the rank and estimation of the seminary of Messrs. Dewitt and Kingsbury, previous to the new arrangements of which an account is given in the following intelligence. Those who are unacquainted with the school, may derive information respecting its character, from the mention made of it in the Report of the committee on public schools in the town of Providence. *See the first article of our present Number.*

It is perhaps unnecessary to say that the high school on its new arrangement, offers excellent opportunities for the full benefits of a useful and respectable education, and serves to complete the course of instruction contemplated in the report mentioned above. The gentlemen by whose enterprize this undertaking is commenced, have already proved themselves competent to the management of such a school, and entitled to the full confidence of their fellow citizens, who, we have no doubt, will duly appreciate and patronize this liberal effort for the improvement of education.]

A department exclusively devoted to Young Ladies, will be opened at this institution, on the first Monday of March next, under the immediate direction of the junior Principal. A separate building has been procured, and fitted up

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in a style, that will render the transition from the drawing-room to the school-room, more agreeable to young Ladies than it generally is. Our object in the establishment of this department, is, to afford young Ladies such facilities for education, that they will be under less necessity of spending abroad, the most important period of their lives—a period, in which a mother's judicious care is so necessary for the formation of character. In this undertaking, we look for support only among those, who wish their daughters to acquire a thorough education. No attempt will be made to gain the approbation of such as would prefer showy and superficial accomplishments, to a well regulated mind. Far be it from as to undervalue ornamental education; we only wish it confined within appropriate bounds. We believe that the mind should *first* be stored with useful knowledge, as an indispensable preparation for the acquisition of what are generally termed accomplishments; and by this rule we shall be guided in the selection and arrangement of studies.

Lest the establishment of this department, should be thought the result of a want of confidence in our present system, we candidly assert, that all the advantages we expect to gain from the new course, will be derived from a more liberal compensation. This will enable us *to limit the number; to fix a definite time for the reception of pupils; to establish a standard of requirements for admission; to fit our room in a genteel manner; and to provide apparatus for experimental lectures.*

Course of Study, &c.—Reading; Writing; Mental and Written Arithmetic; Geography; Grammar; History, including its various branches; Composition; Astronomy; Improvement of the Mind; Natural Philosophy; Rhetoric; Keeping Accounts; Moral Philosophy; Geometry; Algebra; Logic; Chemistry; Intellectual Philosophy; Evidences of Christianity; Natural Theology; Philosophy of Rhetoric; Elements of Criticism; the Latin, French, and Spanish Languages. Candidates for admission must be able to read, spell, and write well; they must have a good knowledge of Geography; understand the ground rules of Arithmetic, both simple and compound; and be able to parse easy sentences in English. None will be received except at the beginning of a quarter, nor for a shorter time than six months. The number will be limited to thirty six. Terms of Tuition $12 per quarter, or $20 for two from the same family. No extra charge for reading and writing books, slates, pencils, quills, ink, &c.

Should any one, from the variety of studies laid down in our course, and the difficulty of acquiring *some* of them, suppose that the minds of young Ladies will be crowded, or that they will attempt to learn things which they cannot understand—we wish to be distinctly undertstood, that no pupil will be allowed to pursue more branches at one time, than is consistent with solid improvement, or be advanced to difficult studies without sufficient preparation. There will be three general classes or divisions; and no pupil will be promoted from one class to another, till she has acquired a thorough knowledge of such studies as are laid down for the class to which she belongs; or such as may be judged equivalent.

It may be asked, of what use will the study of Algebra, Geometry, &c. &c. be to young Ladies? We answer, that the object of education is *two-fold*. It does not consist *merely* in storing the mind with knowledge. The mind must be *prepared* for the reception of this knowledge, or its operations will be clogged and deranged. Hence the necessity of *mental discipline*, and such a course of study as will best tend to produce it. That Algebra and Geometry have this tendency, none will pretend to deny. Several of the above-mentioned studies are to be pursued as a preventive of pedantry. There is a point in education at which the mind is wont to look with great complacence on its previous attainments. The most effectual cure for this disease, is a distinct view of the boundless range of intellectual acquirements. Hence the necessity of those studies, which serve both to enlarge the field of knowledge before us, and to diminish the extent of present acquisitions.

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With respect to system, we feel bound to none. That system will be pursued which will best promote the interests of the school. Should our number be found too great for the benefit of the pupils, it will be limited to *thirty*. We believe, however, on the conditions we shall receive young Ladies, that thirty six can be taught as *well* as a much smaller number, aside from independent principles.

As it is impossible to express our views fully, within the compass of a circular, we shall be happy to give any further explanation, that may be deemed necessary.

G. A. Dewitt,
J. Kingsbury.

Providence, February 6, 1828.

Male Department.

In this institution, there will be opened, on the second Monday in September next, a department for Young Gentlemen, similar to that now conducted by Mr. Kingsbury, for Young Ladies.

This department will be chiefly under the direction of Messrs. Crane & Keely; and a building will be erected, or suitable rooms provided for it, during the Summer. Those offered for instruction will be examined, and none will be received who are not prepared to commence the following course of study.

English Grammar; Elocution and Composition; Rhetoric and Polite Literature: Logic; Ancient and Modern Geography, with the use of the Globes; Ancient and Modern History, with Chronology; Moral Philosophy; Natural Theology, and the evidences of Christianity; Natural History; the Philosophy of the human mind; the American Constitution, and Political Economy; the Latin and Greek Languages, and Literature; Arithmetic and Book-keeping; Algebra; Geometry and Trigonometry, so far as they are necessary for understanding the practical ats; Navigation; Mensuration of superfices and solids; Land and Maritime surveying; drawing of Maps, Charts, &c. Natural Philosophy, and the Anatomical Structure and Functions of Man.

For this, which is to be considered the *regular course*, the terms will be $12 per quarter—or $10 should there be more than one from the same family.

The following are regarded as *extra* studies—The French and Spanish Languages and Literature; Perspective, Drawing and Painting; Chemistry; the Mathematical course enlarged in the articles of Geometry, Trigonometry, Conic Sections, &c.

Any one may attend to the *whole*, or only a *part* of the extra studies, for each of which a separate charge will be made; this charge, however, will be *less* to those pursuing the regular course.

It may now be proper to give som exposition of the *mode*, in which we propose to carry our plan into execution.—It is our intention to make our instructions plain, useful, and practical. For illustration—In the English department, it will be our object to enable the pupils thoroughly to understand the language,—to speak and write it with ease, correctness, and elegance; and to perceive and discriminate the beauties and defects of whatever they may read. In the Mathematical studies, we shall have a constant reference to their *practical* application; and shall pursue them so far, and in such a manner, as that object may require.

Natural Philosophy will be studied with the same view; and particularly Mechanics; as we deem this part of the Science more important than any other, in the Education of Young men, who are preparing to take the direction of Manufacturing Establishments.

From this exposition, it will be seen that we are endeavouring to meet the wants of a Mercantile and Manufacturing community; though at the same time, we mean to teach whatever is preparatory to studying the liberal professions.

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If we, and our friends, have not mistaken public sentiment, a school of this sort is now called for. We are disposed to make the experiment, and trust for support, to a liberal and intelligent community. In doing this we wish to show a prudent regard for our own safety; otherwise, we should give little reason for confidence in our ability to execute the plan we propose. We shall commence, therefore, in such a manner as we think safe; and shall make enlargements and additions as they may be required. In this way, we hope to promote the interests of practical education, more effectually, than by any sudden and violent effort; and we promise our best exertions to supply the wants of the community in this respect, as far as they shall show themselves willing to encourage us.

In conclusion, we feel bound to allude to a consideration, which we think will be found an important one. Our institution combines several separate departments, studiously arranged to suit each other, and to form a complete system. We are therefore prepared to take children at the earliest age, and carry them through the whole course of their education. By this means, all the children of a family may be placed at the same School, in some of its different departments; and thus, their studies will be conducted on a plan more regular and systematic, than if they were sent to different Schools.

As it is difficult, in a circular, fully to explain our views, we shall be happy to give a more minute exposition of them, to any who may wish to converse with us on the subject.

G. A. Dewitt, J. Kingsbury, S. A. Crane, J. W. Keely.

Providence, June, 1828.

SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND IN LIVERPOOL.

About twenty six years have now elapsed since an attempt was made to afford relief to those persons who were labouring under the complicated misfortunes of poverty and blindness, for forming an institution where they might be cheered by conversation, and where, by being engaged in different occupations, their minds might be relieved from the fatigue of inactivity, at the same time, that their labour might in some degree contribute to their support.

The experiment of a few years proved that the object was not unattainable, and even the first efforts that were made were so far successful, as to meet with the decided approbation of the public.

Increased experience has, however, enabled the managers of the Institution to improve the nature of the establishment under their care; and as they extended their views, they have continued during each successive year to render it less of an Asylum, and more approaching to a School, where the blind should be instructed in some useful art or trade, by which they might be enabled to procure for themselves a comfortable livelihood.

At the opening of the present School in the spring of 1800, the number of pupils was increased to seventy; in 1809 to one hundred, and the number at present in the school is ninety eight; they are all of them usefully employed, and they exhibit a picture of cheerfulness and comfort which can perhaps scarcely be paralleled by an equal number of individuals of any description whatever, collected under the same roof. Few persons have, for the first time, been eye witnesses of the scene which it presents, without shedding tears of sympathy and delight, nor has their interest in the establishment been diminished by a more intimate acquaintance with it. To behold a number of fellow

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creatures, whose previous situation was so truly deplorable, become at the same time happy and useful, produces a sensation of heartfelt satisfaction which words are unable to express.

A circumstance, which, at the same time, that is highly gratifying to the feelings of the Committee, proves decidedly the favourable opinion which the public at large entertain of the benefits derived from the Institution is, that five similar schools have been established on the plan of the one at Liverpool, viz. in the cities of London, Dublin, Edinburgh, Bristol, and Norwich. The Committee have embraced every opportunity of conveying information to the managers of those institutions; and they take this method of expressing their readiness to cooperate with them in any way, by which the welfare of those charities may be promoted.

The principal occupations of the pupils at present are, spinning, hamper and basket making, the plaiting of sash lines, the weaving of worsted rugs for hearths, carriages and doors, of linen and of floor cloth and sacking, the making of socks and list shoes, the manufacturing of twine, pack thread, log lines, clothes lines and fish lines, of stair carpeting and foot bears, points and baskets from old ropes, and the learning of music. In this last department, the attention of the pupil, is particularly directed to qualifying the pupils for the office of organist; forty one of them have been rendered fully competent to such an appointment. The pupils are also instructed in a new method, upon the principle of the Mardas system, established by Dr. Bell of teaching music to others, and in tuning and stringing musical instruments, a circumstance, which, in country places, particularly, may be an important advantage to the neighbourhood where they are introduced. By these means, they are enabled to procure for themselves a comfortable livelihood, and have met with very considerable encouragement. Besides the means which are adopted to instruct the pupils in these several employments, a strict attention is paid to their moral and religious conduct· The health of the pupils is also made an object of especial care, and medical practitioners are appointed to superintend and regulate all circumstances relating to it. The medical committee particularly direct their attention to the state of the eyes, and consider it their province to ascertain whether any means can be employed for the recovery of sight. It may be necessary to remark, that no operation of this kind is ever performed without the express consent of the parties and of their friends.—*Liverpool (Eng.) paper.*

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Observations on a Practical System of Translation; with a few Remarks on the Modes generally pursued in learning Languages. By Mariano Cubi I Soler. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 8vo. pp. 63.

The system to the exposition of which this pamphlet is devoted we had occasion to state briefly, when mentioning the Traducteur Francois of the same author. The limits of a notice will not permit us to enter at present into the

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subject at such length as justice to the views of the writer and the value of his works would render desirable. The learning and the research manifested in the essay now before us, while they reflect great credit on the author, give a weight and authority to his statements, which cannot but prove satisfactory to every reader.

But in our next number we shall endeavour to take up this valuable pamphlet in a manner more adequate to its importance; as we have brought it forward at present merely for the sake of not letting slip the earliest possible opportunity of mentioning it and recommending it to our readers.

Before leaving this useful treatise, for the present, we may say, in a few words, that the method which it recommends is, to a considerable extent, original; and that, in other respects, it embraces a very happy combination of the thorough discipline of the established mode of instruction, along with all that is valuable in the facilities offered by the recent or rather revived improvements so often mentioned in this Journal.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Week Days and Sunday. Designed for very little Children. One of a series of Stories by the Author of Fruit and Flowers. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 18mo. pp. 8.

Little Wentworth's Morning Lesson. Designed for Children two or three years old. *By the same Author, and published as above.*

Little Susan. Designed for Children two or three years old. *As the above.*

The Little Boy Who Minded Trifles. Designed for Children from six to eight years old. *See above.*

These stories are all more immediately connected with religious than with intellectual instruction, and will fall, perhaps, more properly under the notice of other periodicals than ours. But we are induced to mention them chiefly for the happy simplicity of manner and the attractive interest by which they are distinguished among the juvenile publications of the day. Their pervading spirit is that of gentleness and love, operating with a silent but powerful sway over the young mind. The perusal of these stories we would earnestly recommend to the teachers of infant and primary schools, as furnishing much useful direction concerning the method of communicating with infancy, so as to leave the natural happiness, of that early period undisturbed, and to make the office of instruction enlarge, and to perpetuate it, rather than in any degree to impair or interrupt it.

Erratum. In the notice of Poetry for Schools, (see last No., p. 368, first line,) for *practical* read *poetical.*

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COMMON EDUCATION.

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF CONNECTICUT.

[The following is the report mentioned in our last number; and though as yet unacquainted with its success before the legislature, we lay it before our readers, as a document of great importance in relation to the general interests of education. It presents many serious facts, which cannot fail to interest every mind concerned for the improvement and the general dissemination of instruction; and the expedients which it proposes for the effectual supervision of common schools, are worthy of deep attention in Massachusetts as well as other states, in which the standard of common education, is still confessedly below the character and the condition of the people.

The pamphlet from which the following article is copied is entitled 'Report of the Joint Committee on Common Schools; submitted to the Legislature, May Session, 1828.]

Report.

THE joint committee, to whom was referred so much of his excellency the governor's message as relates to common schools, make the following report:—

They have consulted upon the means best adapted to provide a remedy for some of the prominent defects in our system of common schools; from which, it is supposed, originates much of the laxity that has recently become a subject of complaint. The committee coincide with the opinion expressed in the governor's message, that the munificent donation on the part of this state, for the support of common schools, has not produced

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those highly beneficial effects which might have been reasonably anticipated. They do not, however, intend to cast the smallest reproach upon our community, for any indifference to this subject ; being fully aware that it is natural that the strong reliance upon the annual aid derived from the school fund, should be accompanied by a correspondent want of exertion in our school societies and districts. The great amount of principal in the fund, induces an expectation of more ample assistance, than can be realized under existing circumstances.

The committee are anxious to obviate some of the chief difficulties that have arisen, in the operation of our school system. They are, at the same time, of the opinion, that any new measures to be adopted, ought to be of such a character as will be most consonant with public sentiment, in order to ensure their prompt and effectual execution. The people have a right, and will exercise it, of thinking and acting for themselves.

The governor's message adverts to the necessity of a thorough examination of the instructers, and of a faithful inspection of common schools. It also particularly recommends a vigilant performance, of the duties of school visiters, and submits to the consideration of this legislature, 'the propriety of more specifically prescribing by law, the duties of the visiters, with additional sanctions, and of requiring those in each society, to report annually to the comptroller, the precise condition of the respective schools.'

After a careful examination of this subject, it appears to your committee, that the most effectual mode of ascertaining and remedying the defects of our school system is—

1st. To appoint a superintendent of common schools.

2d. To require correct semiannual reports from school visiters.

3d. That the clerks of the several school societies shall, in the month of April, annually transmit to the superintendent, the reports of the visiters, for the preceding year.

4th. That it be made the duty of the committees, (in order to draw the quota of public money for their respective school societies,) to certify that the visiters and clerks above mentioned, have performed the duties required of them, for the year preceding.

With these views, your committee have prepared a bill, which they herewith offer to the consideration of the Assembly. They have endeavoured to confine themselves at present, solely to such modifications of our system, as appear to be most indispen-

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sably necessary. Those now proposed, are merely additions to the present law.

In conclusion, your committee take the liberty, to refer the General Assembly, to an accompanying report, which was printed by their order, two years since, and which throws considerable light upon the condition of our common schools.

All which is respectfully submitted.

By order of the joint committee, John Alsop, *Chairman. May Session*, 1828.

The following is the report above referred to.

The committee appointed upon the resolution 'to inquire whether any, and if any, what alterations in the laws relating to common schools, are necessary to raise their character and increase their usefulness,' respectfully report—That they deem the subject which they were called to investigate, to be one of vital importance to the state. The intellectual and moral culture of every member of the community, was the basis on which the founders of our happy institutions, reared the whole structure of civil society. In favour of this fundamental principle of free government, they bore a testimony so noble, as to command the admiration of all wise men, to whom their history is known; and to vindicate to themselves the high renown of 'benefactors of the human race.' A like interest was felt by their immediate descendants in the general diffusion of knowledge; and the system of common schools continued to be an object of peculiar care to the state, and went on improving, until the public resources enabled the legislature to grant it the late munificent endowment.

Placed on a footing so elevated, and justly preferred to every other interest, it was not unreasonably supposed that the results of the system would correspond with its means, and that these institutions would maintain their acknowledged preeminence over the primary schools of other states;—at least that they would not fail to keep pace with the progress of general improvement in our own. Facts compel your committee to say, that in their opinion they have done neither. The states of New-York and Massachusetts begin, *already*, to challenge a superiority for their common schools, although it is but a few years since they looked to Connecticut for their models, and sought the aid of her wisdom. The academies of this state have never been cheered with a solitary gleam of legislative bounty, and seem to be wholly excluded from the pale of legislative sympathies; yet many

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of them have flourished. The university in this city has risen chiefly by its own energies, and urged its way to eminence with little aid from the state which it exalts and adorns. Yet common schools, on which, as on a favourite child, the public resources have been lavished with great liberality, *but with little care*, have been gradually declining in their relative standing. The result of the experiment has decided that no appropriations of money will secure the inceasing prosperity of schools. They lighten the burdens of the people, but they also diminish, and for that reason, perhaps, their interest in these institutions. While your committee are reluctant to believe, with many of the most enlightened men with whom they have corresponded in relation to the subject that the common schools are in no better condition than they would have been, had they received no aid from the state, they are confirmed in the opinion that they have fallen far short of that excellence which they might have attained.

In connexion with the comparative depression of common schools, it should be stated, that there is an increasing indifference on the part of the people, to the interests of these institutions. To whatever causes this apathy is to be attributed, it is a fact of tremendous import, and demonstrates that this interest cannot be *exclusively* entrusted to the people, without injury to the state.

The parts of the system which require more immediate attention, are the books used, the qualifications of teachers, and the inspection and report of the schools.

A reform in that part of the system relating to books, while it would promote economy, seems indispensable to the success of the schools. The continual fluctuation in the use of books with which the schools are inundated, subjects the parent to a heavy expense, and prevents that uniformity without which there can be no classification—a principle highly conducive to success in every grade of instruction. The selections are, not unfrequently, made with little judgment, and many books are used, fit only to corrupt the taste or the morals of youth. The important business of preparing elementary books, has been left too much, to unskilful hands—to men who have betrayed at every step, their utter ignorance of the first principles of the philosophy of mind, a science to which the higher departments of education are greatly indebted, but whose aid has been little sought after in the lower, where it is most needed. This is an evil which the legislature, and the legislature *only*, can remedy.

Our elementary books should possess a more national charac-

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ter, the elements of our history, of our civil and political institutions, and of our religion, should be engraven on the memory of every child, and its earliest associations should be those of an American, a republican, and a christian. In this way, may the men of future generations be trained for the responsibility which awaits them, and become the safe depositaries of the rich inheritance which we now enjoy.

As it respects the qualification of teachers, a matter of vital importance to the improvement of schools, the law has made no requisitions, but has left the subject entirely to the discretion of the school visiters. Your committee are of the opinion that something would be gained by specifying the requisite qualifications, assuming as a standard such as are already possessed, with a distinct intimation, that it is the policy of the state, gradually to raise this standard. It is believed, that the course of instruction may be considerably extended without interfering with the branches usually taught—that the elements of geography and history might advantageously precede the more difficult branches of English grammar and arithmetic, and the principles of mensuration, with some of their more practical applications, while they encroached not on the rudiments of learning, would serve to diversify the intellectual pursuits of the young, and fit them for more extensive usefulness.

The project of a seminary for the training of teachers, a favourite measure with some of the most enlightened men of the neighbouring states, however much it may promise, is deemed by the committee to be at present impracticable.

The condition of every school, as it regards the books used, the number of pupils, the branches taught, the time the school has been continued, the expenditures, with similar facts, should be presented annually to the legislature and the public. This would have the twofold effect of obtaining that information which would enlighten the path of legislation, in future, and of operating as a powerful stimulus to the career of improvement. A knowledge of the fact, that the eye of the state is watching their movements, and that their actual and comparative standing is to be known to the public, can hardly fail to increase the fidelity of teachers, the industry of pupils, and the zeal of parents.

The inefficiency of the system, has, in the opinion of your committee, arisen, chiefly, from the neglect of supervision on the part of the state. No measures have been taken to to ascertain the actual condition of common schools. Their internal man-

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agement, their character and prospects, have not sufficiently engaged the attention of the legislature.

With a view to invigorate and improve the system, the committee recommend the appointment of a superintendent of common schools, whose duty shall be to recommend suitable books to the adoption of school visiters, and such modes of instruction and government as he may deem most expedient; and from the reports of the several school societies, to prepare and present to the legislature, annually, a report, so far as he may obtain information, showing the actual condition of every common school in the state, together with his proceedings for the year.

Such are the views which the committee have deliberately formed on the subject submitted to their investigation. The changes proposed, if adopted, will not in the least impair the powers granted to school societies and school visiters. They are designed to correct a part only of existing evils, leaving it to others to provide a remedy for the evils which remain.

The fact that on these institutions, the great body of the people must ever depend, exclusively, for the means of education, invests them with a paramount importance, and establishes their claim to the peculiar and increasing regard of the legislature. Of the 206 members who compose this honourable body, more than 180 are indebted, for their education, either entirely or chiefly to common schools. Such men, it is confidently believed, while they are laudably employed in embellishing the structure of civil society, and in giving a fair exterior, will not suffer its foundation to go to decay. All which, with the accompanying bill for a public Act, is respectfully submitted.

In behalf of the committee, Hawley Olmstead, *Chairman.*

An Act in addition to an Act entitled an 'Act for the regulation of School Societies and for the support of Schools.'

Sect. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives, in General Assembly convened,* That there shall be a superintendent of common schools, who shall be appointed by, and continue in office during the pleasure of, the General Assembly.

Sect. 2. It shall be his duty to recommend for the adoption of the school visiters, such books to be used in the schools and such modes of instruction and government as he may deem most judicious; he shall collect and diffuse information on the subject of elementary education, and by all suitable means, so far as he may be able, enlighten, guide and excite the teachers and

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school visitors to a faithful discharge of their respective duties; he shall visit, from time to time, the several counties within the state, and ascertain so far as may be practicable, the condition of the schools; he shall annually transmit to the clerks of the several school societies blank forms of reports for the use of the school visiters, and from their reports and other sources of information, shall prepare and present annually to the General Assembly, his report exhibiting so far as may be practicable, the condition of every common school in the state, with his proceedings during the year, and propose such modifications of the laws relating to common schools as he may deem expedient.

Sect. 3. The superintendent of common schools, shall receive for his services, a salary of ——— dollars per annum.

Sect. 4. It shall be the duty of the school visiters in the several school societies, to lodge with the clerks of their respective societies, on or before the first day of April, and on or before the first day of October in each year, a report exhibiting the condition of each common school within their limits, for the preceding season of schooling, as it respects the books used, the branches taught, the time which the school has been kept, the number of pupils who have been taught in the school, the average attendance, the number of persons between the ages of four and sixteen years belonging to, and residing within the district, the wages of the instructer, the amount of monies recieved from the school fund during the season, the amount raised by the district for the support of the school, and such additional particulars as the superintendent may specify and direct.

Sect. 5. The clerks of the several school societies shall transmit, on or before the 10th day of April in each year, the reports of the school visiters for the preceding year, to the superintendent of common schools.

Sect. 6. The school society committees shall not certify to the Comptroller of Public Accounts, that the schools in ther respective societies have been kept, during the preceding year in all respects according to law, unless the provisions of the 4th and 5th sections of this Act have been duly observed, on penalty of making a false certificate.

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ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

[*Resumed from last Number.*]

We return to the suggestion of simple and natural methods for elementary instruction, by which, the young mind may be gradually and happily unfolded and prepared for efficient guidance in the pursuits of life.

As means of formal instruction, we come to the mention of exercises particularly conducive to lead the young mind to perceive the connexion of ideas with words—a point to which the attention of teachers should be distinctly directed in the communication of knowledge to their pupils. The mere impression of names upon the memory, is but a part of the true purpose of tuition. Words are but the visible forms of thought, the signs of ideas, and, to become significant, must be connected with the ideas which they are designed to represent. A child may commit to memory and recite with perfect accuracy, and afterward, page after page, from written expressions, and yet obtain but few ideas from the exercise—for the simple reason, that the words repeated, are not associated in the mind, with their corresponding ideas. But let the terms which he has thus recited, be connected with the ideas which they represent, by means of words which suggest correct ideas to his mind, and he will then derive instruction from his labour. A prominent purpose of all education is, or should be, the acquisition of accurate and distinct ideas, and the names by which they are expressed. All systems which fail of these results, are consequently imperfect.

Among exercises favourable to the union of these objects, the following are submitted to the consideration of teachers. The pupil's attention may be directed to the forms, appearances, uses, histories, and other attributes of common objects, presented in succession to his view, on which the teacher may remark, in such a manner as to communicate correct ideas, and assign them their proper names. In the same way, may the ideas and names of actions be taught. Words may be selected from the reading and spelling lessons, and the pupil required to write their definitions, in his own form of expression, upon his slate. The teacher may himself give the definitions, and the pupils' mind may be put in requisition, to annex their proper terms, or those which are synonymous. Instead of formal definitions of these words, the pupil may illustrate their meaning, by arranging them in

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sentences of his own construction, written on his slate. The teacher may dictate given words, and require the pupil to write their synonymes. The common reading and spelling lessons, by being analyzed in this manner, may prove useful, and certainly very interesting materials, for these exercises; the aspect of study, usually so mechanical, may be rendered, by such aids, much more intelligent and rational.

The oral or written expression of the sentiments of others in the pupil's own words, is an exercise conducive to the same end. His regular reading lessons are well suited to this purpose. Indeed, one of the objects of this exercise, is to prepare him to understand, and consequently to express, the sentiments contained in his lessons, in a natural and impressive manner, the true beauty of good reading. He may be interested in analyzing the thoughts of these lessons, and in varying their form and order of expression, endeavouring to preserve the true spirit of their meaning, in the paraphrase which he gives. Besides the mental discipline of the pupil's powers, in comparing and discriminating, in tracing differences and resemblances, in the character of words and ideas, this exercise will prepare him for the application of these, in written or colloquial discourse, and give him some command of the words of our language.

A knowledge of *punctuation* will be the result of the pupil's attention to the forms and divisions of sentences, without much direct instruction from the teacher.

The preceding exercises will prepare him for those of *composition*. He may commence with the simplest descriptions of surrounding objects, best suited for his first efforts in original thought and expression. Left to the enjoyment of that innocent freedom of mind, which is the rightful gift of nature, spontaneous thought will find expression: the young heart will feel the influence of those forms by which it is surrounded: imagination will preserve their native interest and beauty. His first endeavours may consist of descriptions of objects in the schoolroom, in the fields, in his own dwelling, the character and pleasures of his amusements, and the expression of his desires. These may be written in the forms of simple descriptions, epistles, stories, anecdotes, &c. As in a former exercise, objects may be placed before the young composer, and his attention directed to their names, forms, appearances, uses, histories, and other attributes, which he may describe on his slate. From these simple attempts, he may be advanced, in a gradual and natural manner, to the expression of his thoughts, upon subjects of a

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more abstract character. He may write his thoughts on the nature and consequences of actions, on individual character, and on all subjects to which his attention has been turned. By a variety of expedients, simple and unassuming in their character, yet powerful and lasting in their influence, the young pupil may be led gradually and successfully forward, to the unassisted expression and arrangement of his thoughts, in written composition.

The delineation of forms, in the exercise of *drawing*, may claim a share of his attention. Objects of regular figure are his best materials: in these he will feel an interest. Nature herself is the best copy; and will perhaps be found the best teacher. The apparatus of the school room, books, slates, cubes, &c., may become subjects for the exercise of his imitative pencil. Lines of various lengths, and in different directions, may be drawn on his slate. In the definitions of his spelling and reading lessons, those terms which admit of picturesque expressions, may be delineated in his own manner, upon the slate. Pictures and engravings may be analyzed and described, and a variety of exercises be given, in such order, as may interest and benefit the active mind of childhood. The eye alone, in these attempts, should be used as a common measure of size, distance, and direction. The accuracy which may be given to that organ, by means of tuition, may be greater than is sometimes supposed: like our other organs it may be considered a subject of distinct instruction.

We come next to methods of studying *geography*. The pupil should commence the study of this, as of all other subjects, which are designed to be understood—from the known, proceeding to the unknown—from the illustration, connecting words with ideas, ideas with things. Leaving the manners, customs, &c. of distant countries, to be subjects of future consideration, the pupil may commence with the topography of his own town, proceeding gradually but intelligently forward, to those adjacent—to the state—country, &c., in the natural and simple order, by which the mind ever travels abroad in the pursuit of information. The accurate delineation of these, in the first place, from the inspection of the map, and afterwards, from imagination, upon the slate, is a method of study well suited to the mind and feelings of the young learner. Very little, if any, formal recitation from the book, should be permitted. The pupil may read carefully the written remarks on the subject of his lesson, and give the ideas which they are designed to convey, in his own words. To

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aid him in this respect, he may paraphrase those remarks, writing them on his slate, along with the delineation of his lesson. This will form an interesting exercise, and communicate to his mind correct ideas of the subject of his lesson, without which, the most perfect recitation is of little value.

In the observations which we have here made, it will be perceived, that we have had *elementary instruction* constantly in view. Our design has been to express our thoughts on the *beginning* of tuition, and the methods by which that tuition may be given. Whatever is worthy of beginning at all, is worthy of being well begun; and perhaps no less importance should be attached to the *means*, than to the *ends* of education; as the former, in our present state of discipline, exert their full influence, in the formation of habits and of character. Our systems of instruction, therefore, and especially those of an elementary character, should receive that degree of attention and interest, which their importance demands. The character of the rising generation is, in a great measure involved in these. They are exerting an influence, which, silent and imperceptible almost, is inevitably forming the minds of the young to become useful and active members of society, or by indolence and ignorance to prove injurious to its best interests. And this is true in relation their *moral*, no less than to their intellectual influence. The impressible heart of childhood exposes itself to the influence of every circumstance by which it is surrounded. The discipline of these, is powerful: it may do much for the virtues, or the vices of our children; and this is peculiarly the case, in the discipline of schools. Though, with the best systems of moral discipline, teachers must calmly witness the loss of much valuable effort, from the contaminating impressions of surrounding society, yet this should not deter them from doing all within their power, for the welfare of the rising generation. Because *all* cannot be accomplished which would be, under more favourable influences, the determination must not be made, that *nothing* shall be done. We may charitably hope that improvements may be made. We may enjoy, in prospect, the moral pleasure, which results from the consideration, that the young now growing up around us, are favoured, by the progress of mind and of society, with the certainty of being members of an order of things much more elevated and expansive than the present.

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MUTUAL INSTRUCTION.

[The interesting statements which compose the subjoined article, are extracted from the last annual report of Mrs. C. M. Thayer, instructress of the Elizabeth Female Academy, of Washington, Mississippi. In presenting, in our last number, some intelligence respecting this seminary, mention was made of the remarks made in this report, on the subject of teaching by monitors. That these are founded on experience and judicious observation, will be apparent, on a perusal of the following paragraphs, which we would recommend to the candid attention of all who entertain doubts whether monitorial instruction is applicable to the female sex.]

At this period, when the business of instruction, which used to be left to those who could do nothing else, has become a regular and respectable profession, it is no longer necessary to offer proof in favour of monitorial instruction. But in our academy such assistance is resorted to, only on two principles, first, the benefits which result to the monitors themselves, and second, that no time may be unoccupied by any class or individual in the school.

Every student receives from me as much personal attention as she would receive on any other system, and more than is generally afforded on the old plan; and every class comes under my personal instruction at least once every day.

The manner in which so much is effected will be best understood, by presenting you with the order of exercises for one day. We have six reciting sections. From the two highest, a sufficient number are selected to serve as monitors of instruction. Two more are charged with the preservation of order, and one is librarian. In the morning, the first section is called to recitation with me; and the monitors of the second disperse themselves to assist in teaching, or in writing copies, or mending pens for the juniors. This exercise continues one hour. The second section then attends with me, and the monitors of the first teach another hour. My third hour is occupied in examining the classes which have recited to my assistant and to the monitors, on the subject of their recitations, while the senior sections are engaged in written arithmetic. In the evening, I give two hours to the junior students, while the seniors are engaged in writing and drawing; and the third hour is devoted to the inci-

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dental business of the day, which is always closed with devotional exercises.

One morning in the week is devoted to composition; and in that exercise only, I have not availed myself of monitorial assistance. The compositions of the junior class are read in the school-room, those of the senior in my own room at night, and returned next morning with written remarks. Every lesson is assigned by myself, and very many of them prepared by manuscript notes and questions, which occupy most of my evening hours. Friday is a day of general examination, books, writing, maps, and drawings are exhibited—the weekly registers are posted—the rank of each pupil is announced, and monitors appointed for the ensuing week.

It would occupy too much time, and perhaps be irrelevant to the object of this report, to adduce arguments in favour of monitorial instruction; yet I may be permitted briefly to remark, that in preferring this system, no regard has been paid to economy. That system which is best, and not that which is cheapest, we are bound to adopt. Nor am I influenced by motives of personal ease: for my cares and labours are vastly greater than they would be, if I felt responsible only for a few, while the rest were committed to other teachers. But I prefer the plan of mutual instruction, on account of its commanding influence upon character, in a moral and intellectual point of view, in its tendency to produce decision of thought, and to promote habits of order and industry, a cheerful spirit, and correct deportment.

Let the moral sense be properly cultivated—let the young learn to respect themselves, by perceiving that they are respected by others, and there is little danger of partiality. But to be certain that all are faithful, no section is heard twice in succession by a monitor; and our rules are so definite, that none can suffer injustice but by her own negligence. Every exercise has its nominal value in credits; and, in making the registers, it is the members themselves to whom we appeal. The names are called over in succession, and each answers to her name by stating the number of credits she has merited; and in no case is any other authority appealed to, or testimony required. That young lady would be degraded in the estimation of her class, who could not be believed without producing collateral proof. But it is again asked, 'Are monitors capable?—have they sufficient knowledge?' I answer, 'It is only what they do know, that they are called upon to teach. If their ability to commu-

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nicate what they know, is doubted, because they do not know much which they are not required to teach, the same objection will apply to any teacher, however experienced; for there is still much to be known of which he is ignorant.'

The young, unquestionably, are more capable of adapting their instructions to the age and capacity of the learner, than he who possesses a wider range of expression. We often err in our instructions to children, by clothing our ideas in words which appear simple to us, because we understand them, but which to the child are as unintelligible as an unknown language. It is a fact, well known to instructers, that children themselves often illustrate the subjects they understand, in a manner better adapted to the capacities of their little companions, than it would be possible for the most learned professor to do.

But my strongest argument in favour of monitorial instruction is not yet produced. In my opinion, it amounts to demonstration. I refer to the success which has attended our exertions for the last two years. I refer to the thronged school-room—to our large, yet quiet and orderly family; and I appeal to the result of our several examinations.

That system must be best which produces the most order, decorum, and happiness, and secures the acquisition of the largest portion of knowledge in a given time, and with this principle I cheerfully rest my cause.

INTELLIGENCE.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN DENMARK.

[For the information presented in the following statement we are indebted to the kindness of the Hon. Mr. Everett. The facts are embodied in the fifth general Report of the *chevalier d' Abrahamson*,* of which copies have been transmitted to this country by Mr. Wheaton, *charge' d' affaires* for Denmark

In that country, it will be recollected by our readers, the adoption of the system of mutual instruction is optional with the teachers individually; and there are few proofs more satisfactory as to the acknowledged superiority of this system for public schools, than the following account of the annual progress of the new method. Observation and experience, where they are not counteracted by prepossession and prejudice, will be found leading pretty generally to similar results, throughout the world.]

* The third general Report of the same enlightened and philanthropic individual, was given in detail, in the 23d No. of the Journal.—Ed.

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Mutual instruction was introduced in Denmark, about the close of the year 1823, and was adopted in 244 schools. At the end of the year 1824 the number of schools on this plan amounted to 605—in 1825, to 1143—in 1826, to 1547—in 1327, to 2003—in the course of the present year, the system is to extend to 368 schools in addition to the above; making a total of 2371 schools on the new plan.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF BOSTON.

City Council, Monday, June 30th.—The report of the Committee on the memorial of the Primary School Committee, on the subject of School Rooms, came down from the Board of Aldermen, accepted, for concurrence. The report gives the number of schools at fifty seven; the annual sum now paid by the school mistresses for rent at $2673—average rent of each $47; and concludes by recommending the passage of the following resolve:

That the School Committee be and they are hereby authorized to cause to be hired a suitable number of school rooms in such location and of such size, as after consultation with the Primary School Committee, shall be deemed expedient, and for a term not exceeding ten years; and that for this purpose they be and hereby are authorized to draw upon the appropriation for the primary schools for an amount not exceeding in the whole, for the rent of all such school-rooms, the sum of $2700: it being understood that in consideration of the instructresses being relieved from the expense of finding school-rooms, that a deduction of fifty dollars be made on that account from the respective salaries.

Read a first time, and ordered to a second reading at the next meeting.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Outlines of Scripture Geography, with an Atlas. By J. E. Worcester. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins; and Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 18mo. pp. 44.

A Scripture Atlas, accompanying Worcester's Outlines of Scripture Geography. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins; and Bowles & Dearborn. 1828.

These will be found useful books for the instruction of children, whether in school or at home. Publications such as these have been long needed; and it is gratifying to find these aids to education issuing from the hands of one so well qualified to furnish them.

The 'Outlines' commence with some introductory observations on the ideas and language of the sacred writers, concerning the subject of geography, and thence proceed to topographical notices, connected by a brief history of the Israelites and of the ancient inhabitants of Canaan. The physical geography of the holy land forms a very interesting chapter, introductory to the various allusions of the New Testament writers. In the subsequent parts of the work, particular descriptions are given of Judea and the adjacent regions; and a brief sketch is added of the travels of the apostles as mentioned in the book of Acts.

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The Atlas is carefully adapted to the regular progress of the learner through the various books of scripture; and the execution of it is neat and distinct.

Selections from Scripture, designed as Lessons in Reading, for the use of Adults; with Lessons in Spelling. Second Edition. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1828. 12mo. pp. 95.

The following introductory note gives a brief but satisfactory account of the object of this publication.

'The number of adults in Boston, principally foreigners, unable to read and desirous of learning, has been found to be greater than may generally be supposed. The selections in this book are intended to give the most simple and elementary intruction in morals and religion. The learner, in using it, will at the same time be employing his new acquisition to the best purpose. In printing these Lessons, it has been an object of particular attention to use a large, fair type, and to divide the words in such a manner as might most facilitate a just pronunciation.'

The lessons seem to be very judiciously selected and arranged, with reference to the chief objects of the work; though we cannot but regret, that in this edition, the type is so much reduced in size. To elderly people this must be a disadvantage,—at least during the period of learning to read and spell. The type, we admit, is still uncommonly large and clear; but the style of the first edition seemed so excellent in this respect, that the change is rendered more apparent, and at the same time, less desirable than it otherwise would have been.*

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Ellen Sinclair: or the Necessity of Fortitude. Boston. Wait, Greene, & Co. 1828. 18mo. pp. 13.

This story is written with an excellent object in view; and the incidents introduced are few and simple, and in strict correspondence with the moral inculcated. Still, there is room for objection in regard to the use of words hard to be understood, in the conversation of the mother with her daughter. This may be no hindrance in the case of readers whose minds are sufficiently advanced in intelligence; but it renders the book less useful to very young children.

The School: or Lessons in Morals. Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4. Boston. Cottons & Barnard. 18mo.

The first three of these little books are very successfully adapted to the author's object—that of accommodating moral instruction 'to the every day duties and familiar concerns of children in humble life.'

One of the little girls is perhaps rather too uniformly good, to be a perfectly natural character. But it is difficult, we admit, to teach by example without the liberty of using a model of great excellence; and there is a very attractive simplicity and sweetness pervading the narratives in these Lessons, which will, we think, leave their impression on the mind of the reader.

The numbers of this work which have just been mentioned, will be of great service in all elementary schools, but especially in those taught in country districts, to which most story books have but little application.

The fourth number is excellently suited to aid the reformation of intemperate habits, and may do much good to adults and to youth. For our own part, however, we should prefer withholding such representations from the minds of children.

* The corresponding selection for children will be mentioned in our next number.

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AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. VIII. AUGUST, 1828. Vol. III.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

[As it is extremely doubtful whether the work of Dr. Johnston, from which we have hitherto extracted so much interesting information, will ever be republished in this country; we shall continue to select from it, at intervals, such parts as are most essential to a full view of the history of public education in France.]

Period of the Revolution.—Before the commencement of the French revolution,—an event that will be ever memorable in the history of the world, as well for the actual circumstances attending it, as from the consequences that have arisen from it,—there had existed great cause of complaint, partly real and partly imaginary, and considerable feeling of dislike and illiberality towards the seminaries of public instruction throughout France. This was not occasioned by a falling off in the state of literature; on the contrary, the eighteenth century will be ever glorious in the history of France as the age of learning; nor did it arise from any indifference on the part of the people about the attainment of knowledge, for at this period knowledge was making rapid progress among all ranks; but there were other causes that tended to degrade the system of public education in the eyes of Frenchmen. The doctrines that had been taught in the schools for centuries were no longer taught unopposed, and those tenets which, from a blind subjection to the church of Rome and its bigoted priesthood, had stood so long uncontradicted, a few illustrious writers had shaken to the foundation. The spirit of the universities was at variance with the spirit of

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the times, and the spirit of the body of the universities at variance with that of many of their most able members. The country was becoming enlightened; whilst those who studied with the intention of becoming public instructers, found themselves, upon leaving the university, where they had been educated, behind the world in many respects, and, it may be said, were forced to unlearn every thing, in order to commence their education anew. This was a state of things that could not last long; and the catastrophe was hastened by the diffusion of a new philosophy, which was rapidly gaining ground, and the doctrines of which, though long in openly manifesting themselves, and though opposed by all the influence of church and state, were not destined to be slow or ineffective in their ultimate progress.

But it must not be supposed that the low state into which the universities of France had fallen in public estimation was altogether owing to defects in their own constitution. Though, perhaps, proceeding in some measure from this cause, it is to the bias which the minds of men had received from doctrines, of which the tendency was to throw down all existing opinions, and establish in their place a new philosophy, that it must be principally ascribed. Knowledge, it is true, was spreading among the people, but not in a manner calculated to produce good fruits: it was a knowledge unsupported by truth or reason, disseminated by a few powerful but ill regulated minds, and received by a class of men who, unable to discover the fallacious or sophistical nature of the proof, or the insufficiency of the basis, were yet readily disposed to seize upon doctrines that flattered their worldly or personal feelings, and appeared to degrade what was above their attainment. Instruction, though become more general, was become more superficial, and what were termed the positive sciences were alone the object or pretended object of pursuit. The natural consequence of this was, the neglect of whatever had hitherto been accounted most important in literature, and was still the great object of study at the schools.

The spirit of ancient literature was passing away, and a superficial education, calculated to unfit men for the dry details and intricate reasoning of the deeper branches of science, led to the cultivation of those branches, less complicated, more applicable to the every day current of human affairs, and more agreeable and less fatiguing to the mind. What was disagreeable therefore, was accounted useless; and the stale and abstruse doctrines of the universities gave way before the novel and superficial, though alluring and eloquent philosophy of a Diderot, a Raynal, a Voltaire, or a Rousseau.

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The universities still produced men of erudition, but this erudition was no longer applicable to the existing order of things, and exposed to ridicule rather than to adiration those who professed it. It was another species of literature that now conferred honour; and hosts of authors sprung up who, with the weapons of ridicule, soon destroyed the impressions of those who, in real science, were far above them. By such writers appeals were made to the passions, and often to the worst passions of man; and what was wanting in genuine sentiment and just reasoning, was supplied by high sounding and empty declamation.

The false impression thus made on the human mind was not confined to one class of men. It extended towards the lower classes, and not less towards the throne. There seemed every where to prevail an unsettled feeling of the necessity of some change, and an indigested plan of improvement, the exact nature of which no one knew. The nation had proceeded in advance of its institutions; and it was evident that some violence was inevitable before an equilibrum could be restored. The way was preparing for a revolution, the first movements of which promised a glorious and beneficial change, a change that was likely to have increased the dignity of man as well as to have alleviated the sufferings of humanity, and improved the condition of the great body of the people. But the deceitful glare of a false philosophy had blinded men's eyes to their own interests, and they destroyed the fabric which they themselves had raised.

Zeal for the good and improvement of his subjects was a strong feeling in the heart of the unfortunate monarch of France; but he mistook the path which he ought to have followed, and wanted that firmness of character that was necessary to check the abuse of a spirit which, if kept within bounds, would have produced such good effects.

The ministers, too, themselves deeply smitten with the prevailing philosophical doctrines of the day, had been looked up to for a change; but they found it more difficult, perhaps, to put their ideas into practice than they had supposed: what appeared easy and plausible in private life, when they attained power they found either impossible, or, from a change of sentiments, undesirable. But the people, who had expected a change, and who had a certain right to expect it, were not to be disappointed: the train had been laid, and the explosion was at hand. The spirit of revolution extended; and as it gained strength its character changed. It was no longer that salutary movement which was calculated to improve a nation; it became by degrees one that,

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under the mask of improvement, was to destroy indiscriminately all existing institutions.

Public opinion and public indignation were taken advantage of by designing men; discontent and restlessness prevailed in every class, combined with uncertainty and ignorance of what was desired; it was a moment, then, that only required the direction of a few able and unprincipled individuals; and these were not long of being found. Pride, vanity, and personal interest became the ruling motives of the leaders of the revolution: the liberty that was demanded by the people, but the precise nature of which they did not know, was by them made a means of establishing their tyranny.

The revolution was effected by public opinion; but when it had once taken place, that disappeared, and the acts of horror, madness, and folly which it exhibited, were no longer the expression of public opinion. They were the acts of a few men who, for the time, had concentrated in themselves the will and the power of action. Science and letters were found incompatible with the new order of things, and were neglected. Every establishment or institution belonging to the former era was, in the madness of innovation, destroyed, and, amongst others, the universities, which were no longer deemed compatible with liberty and equality, were thrown down, to be raised anew in a form more adapted to the supposed regeneration of the human mind. But it was an easier matter to destroy than to reestablish them; and for some time, the nation remained destitute of all means of instruction even in the ordinary branches of education.

When the reign of anarchy had in some measure passed away, and when true lovers of their country once more had a voice in its government, the effects produced by the low state of literature became apparent, and measures were adopted to repair the mischief. But it was a long time before the passions of men sufficiently subsided to enable them to consider, free from prejudice and bias, the plans that were proposed. Ideas of perfection were entertained which it was evident were not to be realized; and, in the desire to avoid all resemblance to the institutions of the monarchy, the republic was likely, in seeking after simplicity and equality, to lose sight of those laws and restrictions essentially necessary to the welfare of every seminary of education.

It was now a struggle between the doctrines of the revolution, and those of reflecting minds uninfluenced by any sect or

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party, and the nation was not yet in a state to allow the triumph of the latter. Amongst the various plans proposed to the National Convention, some were of a description so lofty and extravagant as to excite at the present time a smile at their visionary perfection; others were too like the establishments of old, and alarmed the revolutionary spirit. Some men of enlightened character endeavoured to reconcile the two; but the time had not yet arrived for the cool and unbiased consideration of so important a subject; and in consequence the first plan, adopted and promulgated in the year 1795, by no means answered the purposes intended, and was far from administering to the literary wants of the great body of the people.

According to the decree contained in the Moniteur of the 2d November of that year, three orders of schools were instituted,—*primary*, *central*, and *special schools*. In every canton of the republic one or more primary schools were established, over which a *jury of instruction*, limited to a certain number of members, had jurisdiction: the teachers were examined by this jury, and were nominated by the municipal authorities. In these schools were taught, reading, writing, arithmetic, and the first principles of republican morals.

A central school was established in every department, and was divided into three *grades* or classes; in the first of these were taught drawing, natural history, and ancient and modern languages; in the second, the principles of mathematics, natural philosophy, and practical chemistry; in the third, general grammar and the fine arts, history and legislation. Students of the first class must have attained the age of twelve years; of the second class the age of fourteen; and of the third class the age of sixteen.

Every central school was to have a library, a botanical garden, a collection of natural curiosities, and also of chemical and philosophical apparatus.

In the special schools were to be taught—astronomy, geometry, and mathematics, natural history, medicine, the veterinary art, economy, antiquities, political science, painting, sculpture, architecture, and music.

Such was the plan of public instruction adopted by the National Convention, which, however, was never fully carried into execution, and which in a few years was superseded by a new system of organization of still shorter duration.

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EDUCATION OF INFANT CHILDREN.

[*Resumed from last Number.*]

Is it necessary to have a class room for the instruction of particulars?—It is a very useful, and most necessary appendage; for in it much effective information may be imparted to the more advanced children, which they again will, most probably, communicate to their juniors, and in a phraseology well suited to their comprehensions.

Are the materials of instruction new, or the application, or the end for which they are to be applied?—The application only is new, or the end for which the materials are to be applied. Indeed I think of the infant mode of tuition, as I ever have of Dr. Bell's, that there is nothing new in it, nothing but what has been practised years ago, by various individuals, whose different methods, with the improvements suggested by Rousseau, Fenelon Archbishop of Cambray, Milton, Locke, Dr. Hartley, Lord Kaimes, Helvetius, and other great and eminent characters, have been reduced to a system. In this opinion I am borne out by Pestalozzi himself, who admits, that in order to frame the system for which he is deservedly admired, his course of reading was very extensive.

Are the children to teach each other as much as they possibly can in that part which is purely mechanical?—Yes, because thereby they are both encouraged, gratified, and improved; nor can it be doubted that they are perfectly competent to teach the mechanical part of the school business, and, perhaps, with better success than the master himself; I speak here of schools already organized.*

Does such confinement injure the health, strength, and activity of the body?—The relaxation allowed, the air admitted into infant schools, and the unceasing employment of the corporal and mental faculties, must be conducive to health, strength, and activity.

Can the powers of the human soul be so feeble as not to bear affectionate excitement, and government?—Certainly not; it is what they require; and surely love is the first and best exciter and governor of those powers.

* It has been asserted by an ancient writer, that to study was a good way to learn; to hear was a better; but to *teach was the best.*

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Is it possible to awaken in the soul, in its first opening, the moral bias, the human sympathy?—Most undoubtedly; the earliest age is the period most susceptible of right impressions, and affectionate actions.

What have been the moral consequences in the schools already established?—The encouraging growth of mildness, tractability, cheerfulness, obedience, mutual forbearance, and of every virtuous propensity.

Is the Infant School open to children of every denomination?—Yes; and as the object of 'The Infant system' is happiness, by the expansive growth of all sources of physical, intellectual, and moral pleasure, why should it be exclusively enjoyed by any one sect or party?

Is it a preparation as well for religion as for useful knowledge and practical industry?—It certainly is; the first and ultimate end of Infant education, being the prevention of evil propensities, the elicitation of virtuous feelings, and the practical exercise of industrious habits.

Is the system only for the children of the poor?—By no means; it may be rendered of the utmost benefit to the children of the rich, under whose auspices, and in the hands of affectionate and intelligent men, it may be carried to the highest degree of perfection. Let the opulent and great, not as mere spectators, but as attentive and contemplative observers, visit a well regulated, and well conducted infant school, and they will not only perceive the force, beauty, and importance of the system, but will, in all probability, feel convinced of the error of much of their own education, and the consequent impropriety of the mode of tuition to which they have subjected their sons and daughters.

Is the memory the faculty that is to be chiefly employed?—The affections first; as they alone are the cause of all knowledge, and through them the understanding, next the memory, and lastly the senses: the heart, head, and hand, must, by slow, or rather imperceptible degrees, be brought into action.

Is the system intended to educe both a moral and an intellectual good?—These are the two springs of the system, as will, I think, appear evident from the foregoing and following answers.

Are such schools to realize in the child as much as possible the best and deepest feelings of happiness?—Certainly; and such feelings are best awakened, and confirmed by the encouraging growth of affectionate and virtuous attachments, which effectually prevent moral defects.

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Why have they not been established before?—Either through the prejudices of education, the bias of false attachments, or the jealousy of ignorance; or, because the benefits likely to result from them were not generally known, or duly appreciated.

Are the dame schools sufficient for the purposes of raising in such young children, heartfelt cordiality, internal satisfaction, and rational pleasure?—Not at all; where children are closely confined are kept in servile fear, and experience no kind of parental blandishment, no cordiality can exist; where stern authority and restriction reign, no satisfaction can be felt; and where the affections and senses are not usefully and agreeably occupied, no rational pleasure can be experienced

How long should a child be occupied in learning any lesson?—The lessons should be so apportioned as not to occupy more than fifteen minutes in acquiring them; yet as all children are not equally talented, and as some children will learn the same lesson in a much shorter time than others, whenever it shall be found that *all the class* do not know the lesson, I would advise the adoption of Dr. Bell's plan, that of pairing off the children into tutor and pupil. This method will more deeply impress the lesson on the minds of those who have learned it, and prevent the disagreeable necessity of shifting the less gifted children from class to class.*

Should not the teachers be placed under the affectionate superintendence of one individual?—They should be placed under the immediate superintendence of one of the committee, who should condescend to treat them kindly, and converse with them in a friendly and familiar manner, and who, if he deemed it necessary to find fault, would reason with and advise them in *the spirit of christian meekness and disinterested friendship*.

On the other hand, if he thought them deficient in point of mental acquirements, either from their previous habits of life, or the want of proper culture, he should lend them such elementary books as would store their minds with knowledge applicable to their sphere of action.

Should any difference be observed in the treatment or instruction of the monitors, or senior classes?—In their treatment not even a shadow of distinction should ever be perceivable; but in the mode of development much of the improvement of the younger

* Experience has long since convinced me, that the surest and best means of ascertaining in what class to place a child, is to let him begin at the lowest, and work his way upwards till he finds his own level. For a more particular explanation of this see Dr. Bell 'On The Madras System.'

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children will depend on the attention bestowed on their teachers. These little agents, if properly managed and inspirited, will, very successfully, and with great pleasure, communicate their stock of information to the classes of which they have charge.

Is it necessary to class the children as in other schools?—Certainly; and in doing this, greater powers of discrimination will be required than may be generally imagined; but as Dr. Bell justly observes, there should be as few classes as possible.

Are many books wanted, and why?—Pestalozzi has said, that the child is his own book, and certainly books can be of no utility till the energies of the child be awakened, and he be made an affectionate and thinking being; then, indeed, it would be advisable to furnish him with books suited to his capacity, and breathing the sweet odour of moral rectitude.

Must natural objects be as much introduced as possible for the mind of the child to act upon?—Yes, for the sake of creating new ideas and inclinations, and promoting a spirit of inquiry, and also that *form and language may accompany each other.*

Are the children allowed some little time to play?—Necessarily; the spirits, when under confinement are generally in a dull and languishing state; besides, to debar children from exercise and fresh air, would, in a greater or less degree, impede their growth, and injure their health, which is certainly of much more consequence than learning itself.

Should any person superintend, or direct their amusement?—The master or mistress should always be an attendant observer of their pastimes; but on no account whatever should the children be interfered with, as long as they abstain from everything injurious to the body, or tending to contaminate the mind. A master, however, truly interested in the happiness, or rather moral perfection, of his little flock, will occasionally join in their games, and devise new sports and exercises.

Are they to be provided with playthings that promote muscular exercise?—Certainly, and particularly if they can be rendered instrumental to instruction, as well as conducive to wholesome exercise.

What should be the strongest punishment that should be used for wilful disobedience?—A clear and public elucidation of the nature of the offence, accompanied with a suitable reprimand, and, if requisite, some little privation. But, however it may be found necessary to act, an inflexible steadiness of purpose,

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united to treatment the most mild and dispassionate, should ever be evinced.

Is industry of any kind intended to be introduced?—This I cannot doubt; as it is necessary for man, in what outward condition soever he may be placed; and, it is more than probable, that when the system shall have received all the energies of which it is capable, this will be accomplished.

Why are the rational faculties of observation, thought, and expression to be cultivated before those artificial powers of reading, writing, and cyphering?—Because more natural, and of course more immediately connected with, and conducive to the expansion of all the powers of the infant heart and mind. It would be in vain to urge a child to the goal of knowledge or or self perfection, as long as there are brambles that obstruct, and thorns that encompass the road; clear away the one, and blunt the poignancy of the other,—he may then be wooed forward, because he himself will begin to perceive the beauties of the scene that lies before him.

Should the deaf and dumb, as well as the blind, be admitted into these schools?—Yes; because their spiritual powers, and mental capabilities can be developed, though their physical or organic structure be defective.

Should the natural formation of the powers precede as much as possible artificial instruction?—Most assuredly; if the soil be not well and sufficiently cultivated before the seed be committed to its bosom, it will be in vain to expect an abundant harvest.

Why has there been so little attention paid to the natural expansion of the powers, and so much to the artificial description of them?—This may have been the consequence of an erroneous education, the ends of which have been either partial or mistaken. It is very natural to give our pupils a repetition of the lessons ourselves have heretofore received.

Must we, if human sympathy be the result wanted, quit in a great measure our artificial course of rewards and punishments?—Yes; because they give the mind an improper bias. The mind that is morally and intellectually developed, needs neither the excitement of rewards, nor the goad of punishment; it acts from the genuine impulse of internal rectitude, independent of the one or the other.

Does not one kind action influence a child more than volumes of words?—Yes; because he can much more readily and clearly comprehend actions, which are unerring demonstrations, than understand words, which are mere signs, and may be fallacious.

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Does the good success of the system, in its effect on children, depend more on habits than on rules?—On habits, which become permanent; whereas rules may be forgotten or disregarded.

Are children more delighted with this mode of training them, than with the old system of constraining fear?—With this mode, which is evidently more congenial to their tender minds, and sensitive natures.

At what age is a child sensible of shame, or ashamed of punishment?—In children of a lively nature, between two and three. But if an entire and absolute influence be early established, by *opening a way to the heart*, there cannot possibly exist a necessity for corporal punishment.

Do not children imitate, imbibe, or adopt virtues as soon as vices; and why?—Generally speaking, more prone to imitate the latter, and the reason is, perhaps, that these are commonly the first presented to them. The infant mind possesses powers, though it requires to be furnished with ideas; surely then, if we supply it with amiable and virtuous ideas, it will as easily and as naturally become amiable and virtuous, as it would odious and vicious by pursuing a contrary mode.

Must a child rise or fall in its natural condition according to the good or bad example it has to imitate, imbibe, or adopt?—Yes; for as example is far more potent, and much more durable than precept; and as there are numberless circumstances to which children in early life are very attentive, it is of much moment what sentiments they imbibe from their parents and instructers, whose whole visible deportment will powerfully, though insensibly, influence the opinions, affections, and future conduct of children,—consequently their happiness, or misery, materially depends on the good or bad impressions they receive.

Is corporal punishment of any use when a sense of shame does not attend it?—As the only tendency of corporal punishment is to harden, and as the dread of it on young children is the fruitful source of falsehood, it should ever be studiously avoided; in the present instance, it can be of no avail, because the heart that is callous to shame, is, in nine cases out of ten, encompassed in a frame steeled to punishment.

Are good manners to be cultivated in the child and to be made as habitual as possible?—Yes; inasmuch as they are the passports to favour in every stage of life, and because he should be early taught the respect due to his superiors.

In what consists the principal art of infant education?—In varying and opposing the subjects of attention, so that they succeed

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each other in reliefs; and affect the mind like the disposition of an elegant garden, by a great number of well placed and well contrasted views.

Is the master's example considered of the first importance in these schools, to quicken the slumbering tie that binds them to man?—Certainly, for it sinks deeper into the heart than the most elaborate precepts; and, as first impressions on children, though inconsiderable in themselves, have often a great, as well as a lasting effect, it necessarily follows, that every master should so conduct himself as to convince the children under his care, that he considers kind, moral, and religious behaviour of the utmost importance.

Out of what rank of life should the persons be chosen who are to conduct such schools?—An eminent gentleman, Doctor M—, has said, 'Out of that rank of life which they are destined to teach.' Without presuming to controvert the assertion, I conceive those persons most eligible, who have received a good education, possess polished manners, have lived in some respectability, and who have known the afflictions attendant on poverty.

Is there any necessity of bringing the powers of the soul into activity by the excitement of emulation?—Not in the least; emulation seldom fails to engender vain glory, if not pride, and is often productive of other mischievous consequences.

Is there any kind of rewards necessary to awaken attention, if children are actively, intelligibly, affectionately excited and governed?—In my opinion, none;—it is not unlikely that they may excite mercenary feelings; added to which they are creative of jealousy.

Can children gain too much experimental knowledge, in the first eight or ten years of their lives, to render them unfit for service?—So far from conceiving it would unfit them for service, I should deem those best adapted for it, who possessed such knowledge; because such persons would not only feel and understand, but more readily and cheerfully perform the duties their respective stations may demand.

Why are the precepts which are stored up in the minds of children, so little influential on self improvement?—Most probably because they have not been clearly elucidated, properly impressed, and rightly directed.

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HARTFORD FEMALE SEMINARY.

[The following exposition of the mode of conducting this useful and prosperous institution, is extracted from a pamphlet containing a catalogue of the officers, teachers, and pupils of the seminary, together with a brief account of the principles of instruction and discipline. In the statements which follow, our readers will recognize the same clearness and practical force of thought, as in the strictures by the same writer, in a former number of the Journal. In these, the prevailing defects in female schools were distinctly shown, and several valuable suggestions were at the same time made, with a view to the improvement of female education in general.

From the respectable and ample patronage conferred on the Hartford seminary, there is every reason to infer the entire success of all similar efforts to raise the standard of instruction for the female sex. In most of our large cities there are enterprises of this kind commenced, or already in full operation; and by these, the advantages of a full course of liberal instruction are rendered accessible to a great portion of the community, for the benefit of that sex on which usually devolves the care of early education. From these attempts, much good will, no doubt, result; and especially where instructers are duly careful to shun publicity and display in the exercises of their schools, and in the expedients adopted for incitements to application.

We regret the impossibility of laying before our readers the whole appendix of the pamphlet from which our extracts are made. Several of the rules and requisitions seem to be peculiarly judicious; though some, we must admit, appear to us to possess a tendency rather questionable. We allude chiefly to the 'honours' conferred, and the mode of graduating them.]

The institution is under the care of Miss C. E. Beecher, assisted by eight other teachers and two assistant pupils. The building lately erected for the accommodation of the institution, is furnished with a large hall in which the pupils sit to study while not engaged in recitations. In addition to this, there are seven other rooms occupied as a library, lecture and recitation rooms. A large yard is attached to the building, for exercise and amusement.

A chemical and philosophical apparatus are provided, and a library commenced.

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Pupils are received at any age, or any advance of scholarship; though it is wished that none under the age of 12 should apply.

As it respects the course of study to be pursued, it is considered desirable to consult the wishes of parents, so far as it can be done without interfering with important regulations. One thing, however, is considered as indispensable, and that is, that geography, grammar, and arithmetic be studied by *all* who have not a good knowlede of these branches. One teacher is constantly employed in the hall, in enforcing order, answering questions, mending pens, and sending the classes to recite. To each of the other teachers, the care of one or two studies is particularly entrusted, and she has the direction and management of all the classes in these branches. This division of labour, as it respects the several branches taught, is found to be of essential advantage both to pupils and to teachers.

Each teacher has a particular recitation room for her classes; and they are sent at regular intervals by the teacher, who acts as governess in the hall.

One hour is devoted to the recitation of each class, and during this interval it is not so much the object of the teachers to find out how much has been learned as to communicate knowledge by explanation and illustration of the lesson of the day. All printed forms of questions are avoided, as fitted rather to save the labour of the teacher than to benefit the scholar.

In those branches in which such questions are generally most used, the teacher reads over the lesson for the coming day, explains it, and points out the leading principles, and those parts which deserve particular attention. At recitations, the pupils are required to give the ideas in their own language and not in the words of the book, and the form of questions is studiously varied to induce this habit. At first it is very difficult with many pupils to break their habits of acquiring *words* rather than *ideas*; but when this is done, their lessons become much more interesting as well as useful. At recitations the scholars are encouraged to ask questions—express opinions—and discuss principles. To those of more matured minds, it is sometimes the case that some question is proposed for discussion. They then choose one of the alternatives presented, and after some intervening days for preparation, they meet with their teacher and discuss the subject. The question is then decided by vote.

It is the object of the teachers to make the hours of recitation

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as pleasant as possible; and this is so much the case that many look forward to the hours to be spent in the recitation rooms, as some of the most desirable in the day.

A short account may be interesting of the mode adopted in several of the branches taught. In geography, the pupils are first required to learn all that can be obtained from the maps, and during this course they are required to draw maps from memory on the slate or black board, and then to give a minute account of the country thus pourtrayed. After thus completing the maps, Woodbridge's large Geography, is used, from which selections are made according to the discretion of the teacher. These selections have reference to the previous knowledge acquired, and also the time which the pupil is able to devote to an education; as those who will pursue their studies a number of years, can enter more minutely into this study than those whose time and opportunities are more limited.

For mental arithmetic, the classes use Colburn's work, and in doing each sum are required to state aloud the processes by which the answer is obtained, and the reason of it.

In written arithmetic, by the aid of a little work prepared for the purpose, the pupils are taught to explain the principles upon which the most important rules are constructed. They are accustomed also to do sums upon the black board, and explain the principles of each process as they proceed. There is no study in which the immediately beneficial effects are discovered so much as in this. The command of the thoughts which this process requires, the precision of language demanded, and the accuracy of thinking and reasoning which it induces, are most desirable and important.

In teaching history, the excellent set of charts just published by Mr. Henry Bostwick, of New-York, are used. It is believed that all teachers, when they become practically acquainted with their peculiar excellencies, will consider them an invaluable acquisition. The method pursued is, first to give them a general outline of ancient geography as drawn out on the map at the head of the chart. This is done by dictation from the teacher, and notes are written by the scholars. Each pupil is provided with a chart which she examines as the teacher proceeds, and with the aid of the chart and the notes, learns the lesson for the next day.

After the geography is acquired, the chart being divided into certain regular periods, one, two, or three lectures are given on

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each period, by the teacher, according to the number and importance of the events included in it. While the teacher is presenting a description of the most interesting characters and events, the pupils find the country, the date, the names of the characters, their genealogy, and the general history of the several nations, all presented to the eye on their charts, which thus greatly assists in fixing the fixing the lecture in their memory. Some notes are taken at the same time, and the next day the class is examined on the previous lecture. It is found necessary in order to make this branch interesting, that at least two terms should be devoted it; and hereafter, ancient history will be pursued in the winter term, and modern history in the summer.

In chemistry, a coure of experimental lectures is delivered by a professional gentleman, each one of which is intended to illustrate the daily lesson given out and explained by the teacher. On account of the heat occasioned by performing the experiments, this branch will be pursued only during the winter term.

In rhetoric and logic, the classes are required to analyze the ideas, arguments, and arrangement of certain pieces pointed out by the teacher. They are also required to compose examples of the various figures of rhetoric, and of the various modes of argument, syllogisms, &c., pointed out in logic.

In geometry, the pupils are accustomed to draw their own diagrams on the black board, while demonstrating, and to place different letters from those in the book. The black board is also used in algebra.

In composition, the following method is pursued. A pupil is never required to write on any subject till she has first obtained some ideas on that subject.

The younger pupils and those least accustomed to composing, are required to write stories, descriptions, conversations and humourous pieces, that a suitable command of language may be acquired.

When this is in some measure attained, a didactic subject is given out by the teacher to whom this branch is committed.

The nature and method of the several parts required in a composition, are then pointed out, explained, and somewhat illustrated. The faults common in an introduction, in the arrangement, and in the style and language, are also pointed out. A regular plan is then given, and the mode of expanding and illustrating explained. The class when thus prepared, is then required to

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write on this subject. After the composition is written, the faults are pointed out, and the piece is to be rewritten.

A exercise either in composing or rewriting, is required every week.

After some practice in this manner the pupils are ready to originate and prepare their own subjects.

Wednesday mornings are devoted to exercises in reading and spelling. The work used for reading is Porter's Analysis, and the teachers first read over the pieces together themselves, before instructing their classes. One hour also on Wednesday afternoon is devoted to botany, or some other miscellaneous and interesting study.

Saturday morning is devoted to grammar by those who are not well acqainted with its principles. The others read the best parts of Paradise Lost, when its beauties are pointed out, and its allusions explained by the teacher. In this exercise, Addison's critique on this work is read, the Classical Dictionary consulted, and every method sought to render interesting and intelligible this sublime poem.

In addition to the general care of the regular studies and other business of the school, the principal teacher has the immediate charge of the moral and religious instruction of the pupils. It is the constant aim to induce the scholars to act from conscientious motives in discharging all their duties.

In imparting religious instruction, one thing is ever borne in mind—that the susceptibilities of youth, and especially of young females, are not to be strongly called forth ; nor is religious influence to depend chiefly upon these. The conscience and the understanding are addressed more than the passions, and the effects which follow are then to be more valued and trusted. Neither is it considered desirable to make any effects which may follow the faithful discharge of christian duty a subject of notoriety and remark.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Children's Questions.

[The following paragraphs are from Locke, and other eminent writers on education, whose sentiments are selected and

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classed in the Parents' Friend. The observations quoted are perhaps somewhat ordinary in their character; but they relate to a subject of great moment in parental management and influence; and they suggest a very natural and salutary method of developing the mental faculties,—leaving the child the free and natural action of his own powers, and yet furnishing him with all requisite guidance.]

Curiosity in children is but an appetite after knowledge, which ought to be encouraged as the great instrument nature has provided to remove that ignorance they were born with, and which without this busy inquisitiveness would make them dull and useless creatures. To encourage this temper, a child should never be checked or discountenanced for any inquiries he shall make, but a plain answer should be given, and the subjects explained to him as far as is suitable to his age and capacity. But great care should be taken, that they never receive deceitful and eluding answers. They easily perceive when they are slighted and deceived, and quickly learn the trick of neglect, dissimulation, and falsehood, which they observe others to make use of; and if by chance their curiosity leads them to ask what they should not know, it is a great deal better to tell them plainly that it is a thing that belongs not to them to know, than to pop them off with a falsehood or a frivolous answer.

If a child is fond of reasoning, care should be taken that this inclination is not checked in him, and that he is not misled by captious or fallacious ways of talking to him; and if his reasons are quite out of the way, let him, without being laughed at for his mistake, be gently put into the right. For after all, reason, being the highest and most important faculty of our minds, deserves the greatest care and attention in cultivating it; the right improvement and exercise of it being the highest perfection that a man can attain to in this life.

* * * * * * * * * *

The thoughts of a child resemble a lighted candle exposed to the wind. He asks a question perhaps, but before you can reply his eyes are fixed on the ceiling, and he is counting all the figures that are painted there, or the panes of glass in the windows; and if you attempt to lead him back to his first idea, it seems as great a restraint to him, as if you were to imprison him. You should therefore be very cautious in exercising the faculties of his mind, until they have gained sufficient strength. Always answer his questions immediately, and suffer him to ask

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others, when inclined. Keep his curiosity alive, supply him with good materials, and wait patiently till his mind has gained strength; and then the ideas you have instilled into him will naturally be combined, and assist him to reason justly.

Content yourself with following and assisting nature. As children know little, they must not be encouraged to talk much; but as they have much to learn, they are always inclined to ask questions. It is sufficient to give them plain answers and sometimes add an easy simile to render your explanation the clearer. If they judge too decidedly on subjects of which they are ignorant, puzzle them with fresh questions, till they feel their error, without bluntly contradicting them. At the same time show them by some real mark of esteem, not by mere idle praise, that you are much better satisfied with their doubting and asking questions about what they do not understand, than even with a just opinion. This is the best way to teach them politeness and and true modesty, and to inspire them with contempt for those disputes that so commonly prevail among young people of little information. Endeavour to take advantage of the curiosity natural to children. In the country, when they see a windmill and ask what it is, take this opportunity to describe to them the process by which bread is made; and when they see reapers in a field, explain what they are doing, and how the corn is sown and multiplies in the earth. Never appear tired of their questions, for these are the means offered you by nature to facilitate their instruction. Let them see, you take pleasure in informing them, and you may thus insensibly teach them how every article, that is useful to man or an object of commerce, is made. Thus, without any particular study, they will by degrees not only learn the best manner of preparing every article they use, but the fair price of each, which is the true foundation of economy.

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When your child plies you with questions, do not discourage him; for curiosity well turned is the mainspring of knowledge. He will probably ask more than you have skill to answer; if this be the case acknowledge it honestly, and do not save your own credit by chiding or laughing at him for his impertinence; if the thing be above his comprehension, or not proper to be known, or too trifling to deserve pains, show him that calmly; if none of these obstacles interfere, explain the matter clearly to his capacity, or which is better, where it can be done, follow Socrates' method, by leading him dexterously to find out the proper answer for himself.

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MODES OF INSTRUCTION CONSIDERED IN RELATION TO HEALTH.

[The following is one of a series of articles contributed to the early numbers of the French Journal of Education, by M. Bally, an eminent member of the medical profession. Several of the writer's humane and just observations apply to methods more prevalent, perhaps, in foreign countries than in the United States; but the benevolent spirit of his remarks would exert a favourable influence on education universally, if incorporated with existing systems of exercise and discipline, especially in elementary schools. The sentiments of M. Bally extend, in their true application, not only to the use of corporal severities, but to all modifications of pain and fear which may be avoided, by recourse to other expedients. The teachers of primary schools, it is to be feared, sometimes contract a harshness of manner, which wears away the tenderness of the spirit of childhood, or a habit of hasty and impatient expression, which, through the secret influence of sympathy, disturbs and irritates the temper of the pupils, and contributes to render school hours unnecessarily irksome to their feelings.

The state of restraint and confinement, too, in which it is so customary to retain children at school, is justly stigmatized in the following essay. A great reformation in this particular is, no doubt, gaining ground in every community where education is professedly a subject of common interest; and much of this improvement is certainly to be attributed to the system of mutual instruction, which requires a comparatively ample allotment of space for its various exercises, and which is now so generally adopted, at least in schools destined for large numbers of pupils. A more effectual remedy, however, for the evils of premature sedentary constraint has offered itself recently, in the system pursued in the infant schools. These institutions, by their salutary arrangements for exercise and health, have demonstrated that it is not sufficient for the purposes of education that we abstain from doing injury to the bodily system of children; but that a considerate regard to healthful accommodation is essential to the free development of the mental energies, and favourable, in no slight degree, to that of the moral powers, in relation to the intercoure of life, and to the prospects which extend to a higher state of being.

Alluding to the exploded custom of wrapping up infants in innumerable folds of clothing, the author proceeds as follows.]

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It has been seen, in fact, that the injurious custom of confining the members checked the expansion of the physical frame; and that, in exercising an illjudged constraint during the period of instruction, the moral faculties are impaired, at the same time that disease is entailed on the organs.

As the fault is the same in all the stages of instruction, it produces universally the same effects: it injures the delicate organization of youth, and extends obvious detriment to the health. It is necessary, therefore, to comprehend, in the same strictures, both what concerns primary instruction, and what exists in stages more advanced.—Hufeland has said, It is only the best physical and moral education, which can put man in possession of his physical and intellectual powers.

To command and to enforce a sustained attention in schools, it has been deemed indispensable to recur sometimes to threats—sometimes to chastisements. As the language of reason could not suffice to render motionless, little beings whom nature entices to a course opposed to our views, we have recourse to instruments of pain. * * * * * *

The custom is bad; if recent attempts have proved that a just distribution of rewards, that a privation of them, that the fear of blame, that a lively emulation, maintained, revived, by a multiplicity of expedients, and supported by a regular system of gymnastic movements which render instruction agreeable;—if these attempts have demonstrated the uselessness of coercive measures.

This proof, then, is furnished; and every day it receives a new degree of confirmation in those primary schools which charity and beneficence are raising amidst troubles and confusion.* By the routine adopted, study is varied; and, ceasing to be monotonous, it has ceased to be injurious to health and irksome to the mind. Attention is discontinued the moment it becomes fatiguing, and is exchanged for slight exercises which form a part of the system of operations; and which only serve to enliven the youthful spirit, and relieve the action of the brain. By this innocent expedient, the body is never fatigued, and the intellect retains all the energy it requires. The pupil takes more interest in exertion which pleases him: he performs it with so much more alacrity, as he never suffers from it. It is thus that all the

* Alluding to the monitorial schools established in 1815, by the Society for Elementary Instruction.—Ed.

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faculties, all the organs, simultaneously employed, operate to the best advantage. This result is decisive.

Strange affair! Our instructers, though so well nurtured in the reading of the ancients, appear for the most part to have overlooked the necessity of *two* inseparable *educations*, which ought always to advance hand in hand—that of the body, and that of the mind; and, by a consequence very natural, they have neglected the principle of enforcing the one at the same time with the other. For, as Montaigne says, It is not a *soul*, it is not a *body* that we cultivate—it is a *man*. We are not to form them separately, but to conduct them equally—as a couple of steeds attached to the same pole.

In colleges, the time is very well divided between exertion and recreation. All the advantage, however, has by no means been obtained from these which might have been. It would be necessary to direct them in the most advantageous ways for the development of the powers, as is practised in some establishments of Germany. But this is not the object of our present discussion. Our only question, here, is in relation to what is customary during the time of application, and to the happy modifications introduced in primary establishments.

It appears singular that this intermixture of exercises of which we have been speaking; that this combination, so favourable to the progress of the intellect, and so calculated to maintain the body in all its vigour, could be considered as an innovation. Independently of the precepts of Plato, who recommends to render instruction agreeable by varying it with amusements and recreations, the method of the Greeks has come down to us in the authentic relations transmitted by their writers, and by those of Rome—as Cicero and Quinctilian.

During the last age, great efforts were made to divest the moments of exertion of whatever rendered them wearisome. The method which we now employ was almost entirely known to Rollin. We have seen the modifications introduced in 1744 by the Abbe' Bertaud, for reading only. But M. Gauthier, guided by his genius, embraced a much more extensive career in 1786, and he extended to all instruction in grammar, geography, and history, the happy conception to aid these branches by means of games. He also succeeded in rendering less dry and less fatiguing the study of arithmetic. Some of his improvements in aid of this science ought to constitute an epoch in the annals of physical education, and in the records of instruction. It is thus that in the institute at Yverdun has been discovered the art

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equally of avoiding the exhaustion of the mind and that of the organs, which is a natural consequence of the former—in supplying the scholars with movable objects, which they add or substract to form different numbers,—a practice somewhat resembling that of the Dutch, who make use of small cubes for the same purpose. * * * * * *

This method approaches to those which we employ, at present, in our primary establishments,—in the manner in which calculations are sometimes formed, by the children themselves, who assemble or separate, in order to vary numbers by frequent change of place: they favour, in this way, that motion which we consider the source and the guaranty of good health ; convinced, as we are, along with Ackermann, that 'movement is almost as necessary to man as nourishment.'

It is impossible to avoid appealing continually to the ancients, when we treat of physical education: to neglect their precepts would be to reject the lessons of nature, which they knew so well how to copy, and to succeed in this respect, we cannot act more wisely than by studying them.

In collecting the knowledge thus scattered, men capable of seizing the true points of view have come to found those establishments which are the admiration of our day. The institution at Yverdun is well known—a sort of wonder—raised to such a degree of perfection, that it is with difficulty we can conceive the hope of enjoying it in our country.

We repeat, however, that our present inquiry extends only to the important modification introduced during the time of mental exertion itself—a modification so necessary, so indispensable, that, of itself, it seems to us capable of correcting the faults of the old system ; and that we see no security for the feeble organization of some children, if it is not decidedly adopted in all departments of instruction.

We confine to their benches, for several hours in succession, the little scholars in our primary schools, as is done in colleges: we demand of them a continual stillness, against which their whole nature revolts ; we enforce the attention of grave years, at an epoch when the mind, endowed with an extraordinary mobility, ought to be permitted to pass over a great number of objects at once, in order to secure a liberal provision of ideas. It is thus that the brain, an organ so delicate, becomes fatigued, exhausted, and ultimately produces disordered principles, incongruous thoughts, and sometimes falls into idiotism—a result sufficiently

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ascertained in several instances of persons originally possessed of great intellect.

Unfortunately the experience of ages is lost upon men. The majority, seduced by the charm of hypotheses, give themselves up to speculative meditations rather than to the observation of nature. One daily sees in families, injuries caused by an education well conceived in relation to the intellectual faculties, but badly directed as regards the physical frame; and, far from endeavouring to understand or correct their views, people remaining utterly unsuspicious that such a mistake exists. Parents content themselves with lamenting, without suspecting, the source of their grief; and they attribute often to hereditary dispositions what is owing only to the bad direction of instruction.

The science of medicine should hold up its light over this dark point; but its ministers are only consulted in diseases, and never upon the arrangement of plans of study,—far from judging their intervention indispensable, it is not even thought to be necessary. We forget that that the ancients, who summed up all instruction in music and gymnastics,—or, in other words, whatever relates to the exercises of the mind, and of the body, added to this division a new branch which they denominated medical gymnastics.

The frail organization of the first period of life can never be compared with that of adults, whose fibre has acquired all its firmness. This idea alone ought to make us fearful of exposing to injury the delicacy of the organs, and attacking the very beginning of their development. Although the barbarous custom of chastisement had, it must be admitted, the merit of fixing some children upon their books or their paper, it had also the inconvenience of injuring the elements of the organization and the springs of life. Why forget that the body, when it is undergoing its development, is like soft wax susceptible of every impression? It is possible to compel the intellect to acquire ideas; but if violence is employed it blunts sensibility: it destroys, by checking vitality, the harmony which ought to exist among the different functions of the system.

The result of all these principles is, that we must study man in connexion with the means which nature has imparted to him for his growth. It is in the noble pursuits of anatomy, of physiology, and *hygiene*, that we find the necessary guides for his first education. In investigating these sources, we become convinced that the *motive* or muscular power is endued with a prodigious

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activity, designed by nature to impress on the agents of movement the firmness and the force which is useful to them.

Two extremes, equally hurtful, are to be shunned—that of permitting too much scope to this mobility, (often excessive,) which precipitates into excesses very common at an early age, and that of limiting to a circle too narrow, which renders the vital exertion imperfect, reduces the organs to a state of emaciation, weakens the sanguineous system, alters the lymph, and deforms the osseous system.

The disposition to these extremes is to be corrected by wisdom and experience. The art of the preceptor consists in moderating excessive mobility or enlivening habitual dulness.

No one is ignorant that the instruments of motion are the fleshy and red-coloured parts, composed of small and very short fibres, the union of which forms as it were, bundles, which are called muscles. These, even during sleep, are in a state of oscillation, greater in early years, and diminishing as we approach old age. This is proved by so many physiological and pathological phenomena, that it is scarcely necessary to recur to the fact that to this principle is attributed the origin of many convulsive maladies, so frequent in the early stage of life.

It is to the will that the *total* movement of a muscle is subjected, while the partial action of the fibres is pretty generally withdrawn from its control. If this partial and imperceptible mobility is performed with force, as happens in infancy, the individual becomes impatient, eager for movement and change of place: he is drawn into it by his constitution, as a stream is towards declivities; and if he is compelled to a motionless state, through fear, through chastisement, or even by the influence of reason, the laws of his organization and the laws of nature are equally violated; and serious maladies or tendencies to contract them, are the necessary consequences. It is our part, then, to endeavour to communicate to the body all the activity, all the force, all the firmness, which it is one day to exert in society, which protects it. This last suggestion explains why it is necessary, also, that physical education be directed in consonance with the laws of the state and the manners of the age.

These principles once established, it is easy to see that to their judicious application in the new establishments, is owing the air of satisfaction and of conscious freedom preserved by the young pupils. If their faces appear better coloured, it is because the blood circulates more freely in their veins; as nothing oppresses their nervous system, nothing alters their natural

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gaiety; the brain enjoying all its physical liberty, attention is not painful, the imagination suffers no fatigue; because it is often in repose, it is always ready for fresh exertion; no effort being made to restrain the pupils, beyond the limits prescribed by reason, more docility and more silence are obtained of them. In one word *this succession of little exercises, of slight movements, of interchange of place, ensure the health of the body, the free expansion of the mental faculties, and an amenity of disposition.*

[Parents, in their domestic tuition and management, and teachers of elementary schools—in cities more especially, should always carry with them the spirit of the closing sentiment of this article. There have been periods in the progress of society, and there still are conditions of life, in which health may be fairly taken as a point assumed, being provided for in the free scope for bodily exercise, or the strong inducements to it, which are naturally attached to particular occupations. Of this we have an example in the art of agriculture, or in the active mechanic arts; and formerly the same was true, to some extent, in most employments, when exercise and recreation were habitual and reputable among all classes of society, and even the sedentary citizen, by a wise arrangement of his business, and an enlightened compliance with the dictates of his nature, encountered no obstacle in his progress to a fresh and healthy old age. Now—and particularly in city life—the case is very different: amusement and recreation are looked on with a suspicious eye, as nearly akin to dissipation. The rich man may ride, but even that sparingly, if he would be *respectable*—the man in humbler circumstances may walk, but he is of necessity under restrictions from the weather. No place is accessible to the great body of city population, where light and exhilarating exercise may be enjoyed at all times, or, indeed, at any time; and, as for our gymnasia, they are ridiculed by the majority, and soon abandoned by even the few who have courage to resort to them; and unfortunately parents are, for the most part, too negligent or indifferent to permit their children to derive any benefit from them. A tacit conspiracy against health seems thus to have been formed; and both energy and enterprize are needed on the part of teachers to break it up. In plain language, the best hope of the young for permanent health and constant activity, lies with the teachers of elementary schools. Exercise, to be taken effectually, must be taken habitually, in early years, and may be judiciously called in, to relieve and vary the routine of school tuition; it should be

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wrought up with mental exertion, that it may serve the double purpose of invigorating both mind and body. In this way it may help to form a taste for purer animal gratifications than otherwise are wont to be current in society, and so may subserve the great purpose of elevating the popular mind, and improving the general character.]

REVIEW.

Observations on a Practical System of Translation, with a few Remarks on the Modes generally pursued in learning Languages. By Mariano Cubi i Soler. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 8vo. pp. 63.

A hasty notice of this pamphlet was given in our last number, with a view, chiefly, to aid in advertising the appearance of a treatise which seemed so well adapted to promote the improvement of classical education. A more deliberate perusal has greatly enhanced our estimation of this meritorious essay, and our gratitude—in common, we presume, with that of all classical teachers who have had opportunity to read it—for a production which throws so much satisfactory light on a laborious and important department of instruction.

We are happy to see the subject of this treatise taken up by one who affords so full evidence of being at once an accomplished scholar and a practical linguist. For the advocates of what is so unjustly called the Hamiltonian system of instruction, have, in several instances, by their avowed predilections for popular intelligence and general utility, afforded no slight ground of presumption that they lack the devoted spirit and enthusiasm of scholarship, without which, it is pretty generally thought, nobody can duly appreciate the importance of classical literature, or discuss, with genuine intelligence, any question pertaining strictly to its interests. The correctness of this prevailing notion it is not our object to investigate; though we may be indulged in the passing suggestion that, in regard to the value of classical learning, our ideas are to be formed by the spirit and not by the letter of the case; and that the instructers of youth, especially

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in classical schools and in colleges, if they would prove truly, and to the full extent of the word, mental benefactors, would need to devote a much larger share of their pupils' attention to the study of the grandeur, the force, and the gracefulness of thought by which the ancient classical writers are distinguished, so as if possible to elevate the mind of the student to a just sympathy with conceptions so ennobling and so attractive. A fine preparation would thus be made for the independent and original efforts of the individual; while his expression would be invigorated and inspired, without being confined to the limits of a literal model. Antiquity, in its purest eras, has left us examples of what the human mind is, when untrammelled by the precision of art, and unquenched by the insipidity of a montonous civilization; when it is yet fresh and overflowing with the genuine impulses of nature. In subsequent periods, it exhibits the refinement and the graces of enlightened art; and to blend the influences of these stages of mental progress, and to shed them in due proportion and in full power over the young mind, is the true ambition of an instructer.

How very different the common method is, with all its verbal minuteness, and mechanical and laborious precision, we need not say. To these things, indeed, in their proper place—in elementary tuition—we would never object; but we believe we may safely affirm, that, of all the classical teachers in this extensive country, not a tenth part ever go out of the narrow round of literal interpretation or free translation; leaving the student to acquire what he may of the spirit of the author's conceptions. Of grammatical and philological analysis there is sufficient, but of intellectual and philosophical investigation nothing is attempted. Hence it happens that much is lost to individuals, and much in regard to the progress of the human race; whose advancement in each successive generation, depends not on a servile fidelity to the examples of preceding ages, but on concentrating and acquiring the spirit of their most successful efforts, while the present is left to the free exercise and full enjoyment of all its original and individual power. To such results every teacher may contribute by the spirit of his daily instructions; and the true improvement of education is to be looked for, not so much from theories and systems, or new and expeditious methods, as from the personal influence exerted in the business of teaching.

As immediately connected with this view of the subject, and presenting, at the same time, an impressive view of the responsibilities of the instructer's office, we would refer our readers to

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the following extract from the pamphlet under review. The value of good living instruction is a thing, which, in this day of improved books and systems, we are very prone to lose sight of.

'Before we attempt to give an idea of this system of translation, it seems to be incumbent upon us frankly to express our opinion in regard to the particular methods which may be, and those that are generally pursued in teaching languages. We must, therefore, at the very outset, say, that no mode of instruction has yet been, or will probably ever be, discovered, which, in any manner, can supersede the necessity of judicious and skilful teachers, and the order of instruction that they must devise, consistent, in every respect, with the particular age, capacity, and acquirements of their pupils.

'Books may impart more or less knowledge, may explain more or fewer difficulties; but they cannot, in themselves, supply deficiencies or infuse a sympathetic ardor, the two only qualities that can give any system claims to superiority. One author in his book may have foreseen more difficulties in acquiring the science of which he treats than another, and therefore given more ample explanations; another may have conceived more niceties or subtleties in the science itself, and given more elucidations; but no one can know the particular obstacles which will arise to the minds of different learners, except he who is constantly watching the impediments that obstruct their progress. He alone, therefore, can remove them at the moment when they are presented. If he be not sufficiently skilful in effecting this to the satisfaction of the student, if he be not possessed of sufficient vigour and activity to impart courage by example, the best systems will avail but little, and if he be, the worst will accomplish all that is needed.

'Few there are, indeed, so strongly impressed with the necessity of what they learn, as to keep alive, by the simple impulse of their ambition, that interior flame of enthusiasm, which cheers amidst difficulties, and presses forward amidst obstacles. The generality of students, of whatever age or condition they may be, feel the necessity of some stimulus besides that of the advantages which the acquisition of any knowledge or science places before them. The reward of study is too far removed to be always considered, and too uncertain, to be always expected. The learner must therefore feel a strong desire of improvement, which will rouse him to study for the sake of knowledge itself; a great anxiety to overcome obstacles, for the sake only of overcoming them. These, it is not in the power of any book or system to impart. They proceed from that sympathetic feeling, with which the the well regu-

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lated warmth and enthusiasm of our instructer inspires us; if, by his skill and judgment, he has obtained our entire confidence.

A superficial observer, who should not carry his investigations beyond the present age, might, at the sight of so many new dictionaries and new grammars, all 'better' than those which preceded them, doubt whether, a century since, any language or science could at all be acquired. Yet it is well known, that the Greeks and Romans availed themselves, as we do, of elementary aids to acquire a correct knowledge of their languages, and of rhetorics to use them with elegance and effect. No longer time was allowed then, than is now, to accomplish all this; yet, for the last two hundred years, we have been supposed to improve on the ancient systems. There must have been, therefore, something superior to any general method, superior to any elementary book; that is, good instructers.

Elementary treatises, whatever excellences they may possess, and under whatever aspect they may be viewed, cannot be said to offer any other advantages than to enable the instructer to advance his pupils with less labour, and them to study their lessons with more satisfaction and less difficulty. For it will scarcely be doubted, that a good teacher may be able to explain more, and with greater success, than the best elementary book which can possibly be written. If, in the acquisition of any language, every student could have an eminent teacher who would devote to him his undivided attention; who would analyze the particular character of his mind; who would explain to him every difficulty as it would be presented, and commit to writing, in a manner, suitable to his comprehension, the principal rules by which the language is directed, we should have found a system, which if we followed, the want of elementary books would not be felt, and a system in our opinion, the nearest to perfection. Languages, and indeed any science, will, therefore, be taught with greater success whatever elementary books may be used, in those institutions, in which the instructers are more skilful, patient, and judicious, and the classes consist of a small number of students.'

We proceed now to the main subject of our author's investigation; presenting his own statement of the question at issue, but premising that his view of the method prescribed by the eminent authorities of whom he makes mention, is, perhaps, not in all respects exactly just. We would not say that it is unfair or impartial; but it seems to us incomplete. Locke and Du Marsais are represented by Mr. Cubi as the advocates of literal and interlineary translation *exclusively*. This we presume is one of those inadvertences into which even the most candid of writers

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occasionally fall, through the enthusiasm of the mind and the interest of discussion. Those eminent philosophers would never, it seems to us, have given the sanction of their names to a method so crude and superficial. Their object, if we mistake not, was to use the aid of translation, as a facility for the first stages of tuition—as an introduction to the study of the languages—not as a system for constant use, and for all stages alike. Grammar, in all its details, they never meant ultimately to exclude: their intention was to impart it gradually, as the mind was able to receive it, and to obtain benefit from it.

This, we may mention here once for all, is the only ground of difference between Mr. Cubi's ideas and our own. The method which he recommends involves the twofold labour of translation and parsing in the very first steps of the pupil's advancement. In other words, he would furnish the pupil with a vocabulary or glossary, appended to the book which he reads, and with an ample supply of minute grammatical notes at the foot of every page. Translation, etymology, and syntax, are thus all combined in every lesson, commencing with the very first which the pupil attempts. This method, we admit, is calculated to make young scholars very exact and complete in their knowledge of a language. But it must prove, we think, very laborious—too much so, perhaps, for the early age at which boys usually begin the study of the languages; and especially as a more gradual progress will neither be injurious to their minds, nor will it ultimately deduct from the perfection of their scholarship; and, when fairly tried, it will prove, if we may judge from experiment, much more expeditious in the end.

The method to which we now allude, was mentioned in a former number; and at present we would but briefly say, that it divides the learner's progress into three principal stages—first, that of literal interlineary translation; second, that of translating with the aid of a glossary adapted to the book which is read; third, that of translating by the use of the dictionary. To each of these stages, grammatical instruction may be graduated and adapted, by oral instruction and reference to the grammar, or by grammatical illustrations attached to every page of the book which is used for the daily lessons. The books, indeed, which Mr. Cubi has himself published, will afford excellent manuals for this purpose, by simply omitting more or less of the notes at the foot of each page, till a second perusal, when the student will have become prepared for a more minute application of the rules and principles of grammar.

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The following is the author's exposition of the difference between his own method and that of the advocates of literal translation. Our extracts are made at wide intervals from the pages of the pamphlet, and give but an imperfect view of the method proposed. Should opportunity allow, we shall enter in a future number on a particular consideration of some of the arguments advanced by Mr. Cubi in support of his system. At present, we must leave with our readers the following passages, which serve at once to show the clearness of the writer's views of his subject, the profound attention which he has bestowed on it, and his ability to treat of its minutest connexions with a force and originality of conception, which are seldom brought to the investigation of grammatical topics. Two other characteristics of the production before us it would be unjust to pass without notice. Of these, one consists in the singular accuracy and facility of the style—a very favourable indication both of talent and of industry on the part of the writer,* and contributing to inspire a confidence in his views of a subject in which he is so evidently a practical proficient. A higher trait of merit in this production is the manly calmness of the author's tone, on a subject in which he is a party deeply concerned, and about which there has been not a little of that peculiar kind of excitement in which literary disputants so often indulge.

'In regard to languages, we may freely say, that all the systems which have been proposed by Locke, Sterling, Du Marsais, Fremont, Radonvilliers, Boisjermin, and others, are essentially the same as those which have been followed for centuries past. In the latter, grammar is learned before; in the former, it is insisted that grammar should be learned after, a language has been acquired. To this end they propose interlineary translations, strictly and rigourously literal, of some books written in the language itself. Voltaire, and after him, Dufief and others, are of the same opinion in regard to grammar. They propose, however, that instead of studying a language through the medium of interlineary translation, an entire dictionary be committed to memory.

'He that has attended to the nature of language, and reasons philosophically on ideas, and on the signs which represent them, will not find much difficulty in assenting to the opinion of these men. It is an irrefragable maxim, that grammar is, and must be, subsequent to language, as rhetoric is to eloquence, or logic to reasoning. But that rhetoric should be learned after we are become eloquent, logic after we are good reasoners, or the rules of

* Mr. Cubi's native language, as our readers may have inferred from his name, is the Spanish.

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any science after we are proficients in the science itself, is a doctrine to which we cannot subscribe. It strikes us, that, as a general principle, it would defeat the very end for which improvements in shortening the 'road to knowledge' are made. For we know not of any other means to facilitate the acquisition of any science whatever, than the full and lucid explanations of instructers and books, directing us to conceive right, and practise well, the science itself. This is what we understand by rule, applied to any study whatsoever; and rule, thus understood, is of absolute necessity to any one but a sublime genius.

'As, however, the science of translating or understanding a foreign language, has been erroneously supposed merely to consist in exchanging sounds, it is therefore concluded, that if the labour of making these exchanges be shortened, the time in obtaining the power of translating must also be shortened. Let the equivalent meaning, it is said, be put under each and every word of a phrase or sentence, and the student has nothing to do but read, and '*chemin faisant*,' towards an acquaintance with grammar, learn to translate with ease and rapidity.* Far be it from us to keep from the hands of the student any auxiliaries which will aid him in accomplishing his task, whatever it be, in a shorter period than usual, if, by this new auxiliary, it can be as well accomplished. But we think, that by the present system, the task of translating must necessarily be *indistinctly* and *superficially*, and as a consequence, we may add, *slowly* accomplished.

'In the Colleges at Niort and Condom, we *know it to be a fact*, and as far as we have been able to ascertain, throughout all the primary Colleges in France, before the Revolution, learners began the study of Latin by the system of interlineary translation. The teacher repeated a certain given quantity of Latin words of the *Epitome Historiæ Sacræ*, in their original order, and with their corresponding meaning in French. The pupils copied what the teachers dictated, and thus they studied their lesson. In process of time, it was thought that this was a superficial mode, and a vocabulary was accordingly attached to the *Epitome Historiæ Sacræ*. Since that time, 1784 to 1790, this vocabulary has superseded the interlineary translation, and the students have been supposed to make more rapid and satisfactory progress than when the system of closely literal translation was followed. It must, however, be observed, that a previous knowledge of some principles of grammar, which *any boy of common capacity* could in six weeks attain, was, and is, required.

* 'Thus in the Hamiltonian method [interlineary translation,] a good deal of grammar necessarily impresses itself upon the mind, *chemin faisant*, as it does in the vernacular tongue, without any rule at all, and merely by habit. —*Edinburgh Review*, June, 1826; vol. xliv, No. 87, page 66.

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'Having thus given our opinion in regard to the various modes followed and proposed, to teach languages, and having concluded that to learn them, rule and practice must go hand in hand, we shall briefly sketch our idea of a plan by which this may, according to our humble opinion, be in some measure accomplished.

'The method consists in translating, writing, and speaking the language we wish to learn; first by rule and practice, abandoning the rule, as we make nearer and nearer approaches to perfection in practice. At present we shall state the plan in regard to translation only, a specimen of which, in the Latin and Greek languages, is annexed to this pamphlet.* In taking a view of the various branches into which the learning of languages is divided, we find that translation is, after all, the most important, as upon it are founded all the rest. We shall, however, at the conclusion of these observations, offer a few hints, crude and indigested, on pursuing the study of language after some skill in translation has been obtained.

'Our impression is, that the great secret of acquiring a power of translating foreign idioms in their true spirit and with rapidity, consists in tracing, or gathering by induction, the general rules of a language from the particulars on which they are founded, and at the same time preventing the language itself, as far as possible, from having any interference with the tongue through which we begin to learn it. So far grammars and dictionaries are of absolute necessity; but they must be considered as mere auxiliaries, and the language itself as the chief instrument of its acquisition. We therefore think that individuals should commence learning a foreign language by translating pieces, the contents and style of which would be proportioned to the comprehension of the student, if written in his own mother tongue. In translating, he should be made acquainted with the history of every word, grammatically considered, and with its meaning as compared with the equivalent in his own language. As soon as the exemplification of any grammatical rule should be produced by the language itself, facilities ought to be afforded him to trace the principle upon which it is founded. No peculiarity of idiom ought to be left unnoticed; each should be explained and translated both literally and freely, that the student may, through it, conceive the idea conveyed. On no occasion should the meaning of any sentence be *conceived for the student*; but he should himself, with every aid possible, conceive it by inference, or in other words through the medium of his own understanding. For we should always bear in mind that the moment a translation is given, the student does not understand the meaning through the

* These two specimens were kindly furnished us by two competent gentlemen, a few days after a conversation held with them on the subject of this mode.

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original, but is in much the same case as if he read Homer and Virgil in Pope's and Dryden's translations.

'In learning Latin or Greek, young students not only reap the great advantage of becoming acquainted with languages which are second to none in elegance, richness, grandeur, and sublimity, but which afterwards render the study of the Italian, Spanish, and French easy of acquisition. Compelled to gather the sense of those languages from the peculiar connection of words and their various modifications, the students train themselves to habits of metaphysical investigation, and their power of perception becomes greatly quickened. These are inestimable advantages, and these alone would be sufficient to induce us to think that no good Latin or Greek scholar ever enlisted in the band of those who declaim against the propriety of introducing these languages into the system of modern education. Every mode of teaching them which tends to diminish these advantages, loses, in our view, half its merits.

'We are therefore encouraged to propose the following plan of a book, which we think would afford, we know not how effectually, the advantages of rule and practice in the manner we have explained.* The book is supposed to be the first that should be put into the hands of the student.

'A collection of about 150 pages of well selected pieces in the language we wish to learn should be made, and arranged progressively according to their difficulty. At the bottom of every page a short but clear explanation of every grammatical point exemplified in the text should be given; and every peculiarity of idiom, nicety of expression, and subtilty of language fully elucidated. It is apparent that in this manner the student would practically learn the rules of grammar and the difference of idiom. He would, as we said, deduce from the language itself the rules, and by them become acquainted with the original, from which the rules themselves were drawn.†

'Those who have learned a foreign tongue, if they have at all attended to the operations of their own minds, will have experienced the great disadvantage of having the words in the ori-

* 'The plan has already been adapted to the Spanish and French, for those who speak English. However imperfect these books may have been, in the execution of the design, their success, and the increased demand for them, strengthens us in the belief, that the plan is not altogether unworthy of more extensive trial.—☞ *The author alludes to his excellent publications, the Traducteur Francois, (See Journal No. 27,) and a corresponding work in the Spanish language.*

† 'We suppose also, particularly in *transpositive* languages, that those cases which do not differ in modification, should at first be marked; and verbs also, that they may be easily distinguished from the other parts of speech, particularly from adjectives and participles, to which they often bear a very close resemblance.

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ginal and their equivalents immediately before the eye. This prevents the faculty of impressing things on our understanding, from being exercised upon the original words that are to be remembered; and supersedes at once the necessity of attention. On going to a dictionary the case is far otherwise. The student carries the word in his mind, which he must either repeat or retain with caution, that its signification may be obtained by the first attempt. The signification thus gathered is intimately connected with the object the foreign word represents, as this alone occupies the mind through all the process of search and comparison.

'It is, however, well known, that no dictionary can contain every term, both proper and common, primitive and derivative, which the student has a right to find. Nor can any one deny that there is some inconvenience attending the handling of a lexicon, and the consumption of time in mere mechanical labour, in looking over page after page, until the desired word is found. Every word, therefore, without exception, contained in the selection, fully analyzed, and explained with one, two, or more meanings, should be attached in the form of a small vocabulary to the book itself. Thus the student would, without much difficulty of search, trace every word to its origin, at the same time that he would become acquainted with its true signification. If he felt a desire to trace the word through its various ramifications either of case, tense, person, or mood, no obstacle would impede his course, no intricacy beset his path. Acquainted with the origin of the word, he could go to any grammar* and have his difficulties immediately settled.

'From this it is abundantly plain, that with all the aid afforded to the student, still he must find the meaning of the original himself, still he must infer, from the varied and intricate combination of words the sense of the author. We know, by experience, that after a student has gone through a book of this kind, he has become practically acquainted with grammar, and is prepared to read, without much difficulty, any other work with the assistance of a dictionary alone.†

Thus far will the book we propose advance the student; but if he feel anxious to proceed farther, he should immediately write

* 'We suppose, the whole time, that the student may or may not, as the instructer thinks proper, use a grammar. But we insist upon his not advancing in theory without practice; or practice without theory. Hence in the explanatory notes frequent reference should be made to some standard grammar, that by constantly studying the regular declensions of nouns, the conjugations of verbs, and the rules of syntax, the student may by degrees fix them firmly in his mind.

† 'After the student has gone through the book proposed, the teacher may select any other in the foreign language he may think proper.

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exercises on all the rules he has practically acquired ; * and endeavour, by every exertion possible to carry in his mind the words of the original. Thus his mind will, by degrees, insensibly operate in the language he wishes to learn, and the language itself become identified with his own ideas.

'After having been practising for a short time on the exercises of the grammar, it should be the peculiar care both of the teacher and student to carry on their discourse in the language taught. Here we must indeed express our surprise and astonishment that even good teachers should abandon this practice in the ancient languages, a practice, which, when well considered, is of incalculable advantage. During this exercise no consideration should induce the teacher to translate the sentences which are not understood ; † repetion and explanation should at all times be substituted. On the other hand, the student should, by every mental effort possible, endeavour to conceive the words in the language he wishes to learn. No study, whatever it be, can, in our opinion, afford a greater facility than this for entering with rapidity into the spirit of the new tongue.

'We have supposed that translation, or reading, in the original, pieces more and more difficult, has been all along kept up ; and consider the student now, as having gone through the exercises in the grammar. He must then come to the conclusion, that his object is to write and speak the language as an accomplished native, and that his knowledge of it will always be measured by this standard. Now we think that this end is attainable ; not, however, without much difficulty. It will be observed that our great aim in the plan proposed, has been to lead the student by degrees to think, and conceive ideas, in the language he wishes to know.‡ The genius of a nation is embodied in their language ; and the peculiarities of their character, in their peculiarities of expression. As soon as the student is possessed of the power of understanding any language, he becomes pos-

* 'There are many excellent works in which the advantage of rules, and exercises upon them, is to be found. Yet we know not of a Greek or Latin Grammar, which comprises these two advantages. In Latin this is generally supplied by Adam's Grammar, and Mair's Introduction ; in Greek, by Valpy's or the Gloucester Greek Grammar, by Damphoux's translation of Burnouf, or Everett's translation of Buttmann, and Neilson's Exercises.

† 'When we speak of sentences, we do not mean to include separate words. The signification of these, if not understood, may be given ; but the sense of the whole sentence must be inferred by the student, except on very rare occasions.

‡ 'We have always thought that what is called a genius for languages consists in having a great facility in conceiving ideas, and in dwelling on them, in any language, as far as our knowledge of it is extended, without the interference of any other known at the time.

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sessed also of the power of conceiving the peculiar genius of the people who speak it; and by practice he will use their language as themselves.

'To facilitate this important object, the student, after becoming practically and theoretically acquainted with grammar and translation; and after having, in some measure, acquired a power of thinking with, and uttering the words he has acquired, should select pieces the most admired for perspicuity and elegance of style, of the most polished writers in that language. We shall suppose, to illustrate our idea, Herodotus and Xenophon in Greek; Cicero and Livy in Latin; Buffon and Massillon in French; Cervantes and Solis in Spanish. A paragraph in one of these authors should be transcribed and well digested, that the student may feel all the beauty of the diction. Then he should exercise himself in arranging the words contained in the paragraph in every variety of form elegant or inelegant, that would grammatically convey the same ideas.

'During this exercise the operations of the student's mind are constantly carried on in the language of those authors;* their expressions and their manner of arrangement become fixed in his memory, and by a comparison of the various constructions, his taste will soon become elegant and polished. After he has thus practised for a few months, it is not expected that he will write like Cicero or Massillon; but he will write in the true spirit of their language, and by practice in composition, he will become, to say the least, their worthy disciple.†

* 'The only evidence we can have of our being well versed in a foreign language is, to have obtained the power of conceiving ideas and thinking with it, as far as our mind is capable of operating.

† 'We must here remark, that conversing upon the subject of language, with Professor Kingsley, of Yale College, in New Haven, he mentioned to us this last plan of transcription as of great importance. At that time he had already experienced its utility, and were happy to find that it had attracted the attention of so skilful and profound a linguist, and that it had merited his approbation.'

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INTELLIGENCE.

EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES.

Preliminary Qualifications for Professional Study.

[The following interesting intelligence is extracted from the work mentioned at the commencement of our present number. The author alludes to the disadvantages arising from the want of a standard of preliminary requisitions for students entering on the professional departments of education, at the universities of Scotland.]

It is unnecessary to dwell upon the very superficial education too often observed in those who are entering upon the study of the learned professions; it is already sufficiently known; and it is only to be desired, that this acknowledged inferiority, when compared with the practice of continental schools, should be remedied as soon and as completely as possible. In France the regulations upon this point are very strict; for no student can possibly matriculate or take his inscriptions in any of the Faculties of Theology, Law, Medicine, or Science, without being at least Bachelor of Letters, and, in the Faculty of Medicine, also Bachelor of Sciences. Such being the system, he comes to the study of his profession under advantages which the great body of students in a Scottish university do not possess. To obtain a degree of Doctor of Medicine in this country, for instance, no previous course of study is required; no certificate of capacity is demanded; no inquiry into the attainments of the aspirant is ever made or thought of; the whole test of ability consists in one or two examinations at the *close* of his period of study; and how far these are a test of ability considerable doubts must always be entertained. In the mean time, all literary acquirements not exactly connected with the study in which he is engaged are allowed to languish or be overlooked.

It being allowed on all hands, then, that this deficiency in the system of preparatory education for the learned professions does exist, the great question comes to be, in what manner is the defect to be remedied? Is it to be remedied by rendering it compulsatory on students to follow a previous course of study, or ought a certain series of examination to be instituted, which every student must undergo before being permitted to matriculate? A previous fixed coure of study, it is to be feared, could not easily be effected in this country, and indeed might be accounted a hardship, as it would oblige young men, who, perhaps, could but ill afford the expense, to make a longer stay in the large towns where the universities are situated; while, in the minor towns, the public academies or schools could not always afford the means of fulfilling the conditions required. In France, where the previous literary courses necessary for obtaining a Bachelorship or Mastership of Letters are fixed, this is not the case; for, from the scholastic system of that country, the colleges are so generally distributed, that there is no town of any size which does not possess an establishment where a certain number of courses are given, and where, in consequence, the classes proposed by the university can be attended. In Great Britain, however, it isf ar otherwise. There are many excellent schools scattered over the country; but, being all private or independent, their courses of education depend solely on the will of their teachers or founders, and cannot be regulated by any decision of the higher Faculties. Such being the case then, some other means of bringing about the desired object ought to be adopted, and none appears better than a rigid examination into the literary acquirements of young men before allowing them to matricu-

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late. In this way they have it in their power to follow their previous literary studies in the manner most convenient to themselves; it being only necessary, in this examination, to prove that they have followed them with such success and advantage as to entitle them to enter upon those studies, the practice of which is to form the after business and occupation of their lives.

In the universities of Italy and Germany, in general, the same attention is paid to preliminary education as in France, and in some it is very complete. In the Austro-Italian universities, before a student commence his studies for obtaining a degree of Doctor in the learned professions, he must follow a two years' philosophical course, *(studio biennale filosofico,)* in which the classes are arranged as follows:—

First year.—Religious Instruction, Theoretical Philosophy, Elementary Mathematics, Latin Philology.

Second year.—Religious Instruction, Moral Philosophy, Theoretical and Experimental Physics, Latin Philology. *(Prospetto degli studii dell' Imp. R. Universita di Padova.)*

In the university of Pisa, a regular preliminary course of study is not demanded; but every student, before matriculating, must show certificates of good behaviour, and give proofs of proficiency in the Latin language and in rhetoric. For this purpose he must appear on the 7th of November, before the Director, to undergo an examination upon his knowledge of these branches of science, by the professors of Greek, Latin, Italian, Logic, and Metaphysics; after passing which, he is allowed to matriculate.*

In Geneva, the regulations upon this point are also very precise; for instance, to be admitted to the study of law, a person must have followed preliminary studies in the faculties of Belles Lettres, and Philosophy, after which the academy gives him leave to matriculate. Upon the same principle, the title of Master of Arts, obtained in any foreign university, entitles its possessor at once to enter upon the study of law in Geneva.

That all these regulations concerning preliminary education are attended with great benefit cannot be denied. The more the mind of the student is opened before entering upon the regular study of his profession, the more capable will he be of acquiring a true knowledge and just conception both of its theory and practice; while, at the same time, he will be able to appreciate the full value of the instruction he receives, when he comes to apply it to what, in his subsequent researches, he may himself observe.

HIGH SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LADIES AT GREENFIELD, MASS.

An association of gentlemen have recently purchased the very eligible mansion and grounds in this village, heretofore owned by Col. Root, with the intention of devoting them to the purposes of an institution to be designated as above.

The proprietors have observed with interest the progress of public sentiment on the subject of female education; and they are convinced that any expense in assembling facilities for the formation of the minds and characters of young ladies, will be met by ample and generous patronage. Under this impression they have taken up their design; and in the same spirit they will proceed to its completion.

The house, of which a sketch will soon be given to the public, is spacious

* Otto's Reise, erster theil, s. 291.

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and built in a style of superior elegance, affording accommodations for boarding and lodging the principal and his assistants with from 40 to 50 scholars. A contemplated addition will accommodate 30 more. Ample conveniences for the school are likewise included. The situation is airy and delightful, commanding a beautiful view of surrounding scenery. A ride of twenty miles through some of the finest lands on the Connecticut, separates it from the distinguished literary institutions at Northampton and Amherst.

Col. Root, the former proprietor, and still sharing in the capital, has consented to become the steward of the establishment, and the utmost confidence is reposed in the kind and maternal treatment which every pupil will experience in his family. It is expected that every scholar from abroad, will board at the institution, and be always under the parental oversight of the instructers.

The department of instruction will be filled by a principal with one or more assistants in the regular branches of English education, a native teacher of the French, also qualified to instruct in the Italian or Spanish language, a teacher in Music, another in Drawing, Painting, and Ornamental Needle-work, and another in Penmanship. The proprietors conceive themselves particularly fortunate in having secured for their principal the Rev. Henry Jones, a graduate of Yale College, of whose character and talents they have received full satisfaction. Teachers in Music and in Penmanship are likewise engaged.

A word respecting the general course of education to be pursued. In the various branches of natural science, the most approved authors will be studied, and illustrated at successive recitations, as the subjects may require, in the way of experimental lectures and demonstrations. The more abstract sciences will be pursued so far as they promise a happy influence in forming the female mind, and preparing it for the various duties of life. Individuals designed to qualify themselves for the business of instruction will be conducted as far in these branches as they may desire. But we are willing to say that the character of the institution will be rather literary than scientific. In our judgment the most important of all acquisitions for a young lady, is a correct, unaffected and graceful use of our own language, both in conversation and composition. To this end the attention of our pupils will not be limited to grammatical and rhetorical rules. The accurate and precise use of words will be constantly inculcated; the standard authors in English literature will be critically read and analyzed; a library embracing the best models of style shall be always accessible, and frequent exercises in composition will be required.

A due regard will be paid to the religious and social habits, the manners and general deportment of the pupils.

Elijah Alvord, Franklin Ripley, E. A. Gould, H. G. Newcomb, Committee of the Association.—*Greenfield, May* 19, 1828.—*Greenfield Gaz.*

HIGH SCHOOL OF BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

This institution was founded by the first Bridgeport district in the autumn of 1827, with the view of giving a higher character to public school instruction, than it has sustained in Connecticut for some years past. In its general plan it copies the New-York High School, which was taken for a model. There are two departments—one for boys, and one for girls, under the direction of a principal and assistant in each. The studies pursued are intended to embrace the various branches of English education necessary to prepare youth for the active pursuits of future life. Number of pupils from 200 to 240.

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INFANT SCHOOLS IN PHILADELPHIA.

The first annual report of the Infant School Society of Philadelphia has been issued.

After considerable search, to no purpose, for a building for the accommodation of a school, the Board, on the first of October last, opened the first infant school in Philadelphia, in a room in Chester street, which was loaned by the controllers of the public schools, until some better and more permanent situation could be procured. Fifty eight children were received on the first day. The following is a statement of the gradual increase of scholars:—

October,	150
November,	28
December,	21
January,	26
February,	15
	240

being the whole number now registered.

The number of attendants has varied from 106 to 143. Nineteen have been dismissed, as above that class for whom this charity was intended. Six have left the school, principally on account of remote residences, and three have passed from time to eternity, leaving two hundred twelve. These children are placed under the care of a male and female teacher, who seem particularly fitted for their station, by the kindness of their manners, and the warm interest they discover in the improvement, comfort, and real happiness of their charge. On the first sabbath in October, a Sunday school was opened by Mr. Bacon, (the teacher,) with thirty pupils, which number has increased to two hundred. Sunday schools, as connected with Infant schools, are of immense importance, for here are these 'little ones' practically taught to avoid that crying sin of our land, 'Sabbath breaking.' The happy countenances of these children will be observed by every one; they are happy, because the authority to which they must submit, is directed by sympathy, and in acquiring the little knowledge they are capable of attaining, their attention is not required for a longer time than it can be exerted without fatigue. Here, the education of the heart is particularly attended to; and reasons not a few may be found in the vicious propensities of many of these little immortals, for the establishment of Infant schools. Stealing, lying, and swearing, were prevailing habits of many of them, when introduced to the school; but so far as your Board can judge, these evils are in a great measure corrected; and the desire of revenge, (so natural to the human breast,) seems to have given place to forgiveness of injuries; for, it is no uncommon thing, to see the aggressor and aggrieved cordially embracing each other, a few minutes after the supposed offence is committed. Committees of two are appointed to attend at the school daily; visits among the parents have been generally welcomed, and encouraging accounts of the improvement of the children given.

A school of 66 coloured children has been opened in Gaskill street, under the instruction of a competent teacher.

We are pleased to see that in some places, the public authorities have taken up this subject, and we hope that in our city and liberties, it will soon be engrafted, upon the system of public schools; but, until then, it has claims upon the benevolence of our citizens, which they will promptly acknowledge at their first visit to the schools.—*Amer. Sund. Sch. Mag.*

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EDUCATION IN SOUTH AMERICA.

By an edict of 1551 two universities were granted to the Colonies,—one at Mexico, the other at Lima. They were placed under the immediate inspection of the bishops and the appointed officers of state. Secondary schools, connected with the universities, were opened, by authority, at Bogota, Quito, Cusco, Caraccas, Cordova, and Santiago. The latter university had a professorship of Roman and Castilian law, and a teacher of church music, and neither physician, advocate, nor priest could graduate without a knowledge of the latter.

At the university of Mexico, the mathematics and natural sciences were slightly studied, because the government deemed them necessary in order that the mines should be properly explored. There was not a public school known, for the instruction of children. In an address to the Columbian Congress, in 1825, upon the internal condition of the country, it was said that in the course of three hundred years, Spain had not founded a single primary school, and on that day, there was not a village without one. In the colleges founded by Spain the ignorance of the pupils was, as it were, guaranteed by that of the teachers, who knew but little else than the wretched convent Latin of the twelfth century. The college of Caraccas, toward the close of the last century, was transformed to a university with ten or twelve professors, employed as follows:—Three taught Latin enough to enable the student to read Mass and Aristotle's Physics; one gave lectures upon a skeleton of wax; five taught theology and the canonical law, and one was charged with the defence of St. Thomas's doctrine upon the immaculate conception. No person could receive a diploma till he had sworn his belief in this dogma.

In 1796 a school was established at Buenos Ayres to teach lads so much of mathematics as would be necessary in Navigation. It prospered for a little while, till an insulting royal edict was issued to close its doors. When the inhabitants of Merida, in Venezuela, petitioned for a university, the answer was, that the Spanish colonists, destined by nature to manual labour in exploring the mines, had no occasion for scientific information. The introduction of printing was forbidden under the severest penalties. Up to the year 1800 there were but three presses in all Spanish America; at Mexico, Lima, and Cordova, and these were only employed to multiply the royal decrees and the orders of the viceroys. The first free press was established at Chili in 1811 by three young men from New-York.—*Boston Statesm.*

Education in Chili.—Public instruction is a leading object with the government; but in so short a time they have been able to accomplish only slight improvements in the different branches. It has been necessary to suggest the elements of what will be needed, when the plan of primary education is developed, capable of elevating the Republic from its present degraded state. Complete preparation is made for opening a model school, on the system of mutual instruction, which will furnish teachers for all the others in the state.

Scientific education also needs the improvements which civilization has introduced in our age, both as to the methods of study and the selection of sciences. Something has already been done in this respect, and much may be hoped from the disposition of the people to found colleges, and dedicate youth to the acquisition of good learning. The institution at Talca has already the means of establishing one, and that of Curico, is engaged in forming another. In regard to the first, it will give you pleasure to know, that we are indebted for most of its funds to the munificence of our illustrious compatriot, the Abbé Molina, author of the history of Chili, who has brought them from Italy for this worthy purpose. For those of Conception and Coquimbo, funds have been accumulated sufficient to increase the number of professor's chairs. In

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that of Santiago the government lately witnessed the great progress of the pupils in all branches of scientific education.—*Walsh's Gaz.*

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL OF SALEM.

(From the Salem Observer of May 31.)

The following is the address of Stephen C. Phillips, Esq., Chairman of the School Committee, delivered at the Town Hall on Saturday last, at the close of the interesting exhibition of the the Public High School:—

'The establishment of this school was designed to fill what had been considered a vacant space in our system of public instruction. While there were not wanting ample means of instruction in the simple and ordinary branches of an English education, and while the liberality of our town had provided the best means of qualifying children for admission into the University and Colleges, still there was no school in which young men, by an enlarged, regular, and thorough course of English studies, might be fitted to enter at once into the various occupations of men of business. This school, as yet in its infancy, cannot be expected to exhibit, at the present time, all the advantages, which it is designed, and will undoubtedly prove itself adequate to afford. These scholars have barely completed one third of the course of studies which has been prescribed; the numerous difficulties, incident to a new experiment, cannot have been as yet entirely surmounted; comparatively little of what may be effected has been thus far accomplished; and yet the committee, even now, under all these disadvantages, have no hesitation in appealing to their fellow citizens, whether the success of the experiment is not more than a sufficient compensation for the additional expenditure to which it has subjected the town.

The exercises of this day, in both parts of it, have been gratifying and satisfactory to the committee, as evincing judgment, skill, and fidelity on the part of the instructer, and attention, correctness, and a zeal for improvement on the part of the scholars. But as I have intimated, we expect greater and better things for the time to come; the progress which has been already made justifies the belief, that neither the instructer nor the scholars will be wanting in any future efforts necessary to maintain the reputation which both have this day acquired.

As this first anniversary appears to have excited an unusual interest, and has drawn together so large a number of all classes of our citizens, on whom of course we rely as the present and future patrons of the school, the committee have deemed it a particularly suitable occasion to explain somewhat minutely the leading objects of the school, by describing the studies which it is proposed to pursue in a regular course, the mode of government which has been thus far successfully adopted, and some other peculiar arrangements which have been, or may be perhaps, advantageously introduced.

The course of studies, to be completed, will require a term of three years.

The studies of the first year are Arithmetic, Algebra, Geography, General History, History of the United States, construction of Maps and Charts, use of Globes, Grammar and Parsing, Prose and Verse, Rhetoric, Composition, and Elocution.

The studies of the second year will comprise a continuation of such of the foregoing studies as are not completed, and also Book-keeping, Geometry Trigonometry, with their practical application to Projection, Dialling, Mensuration

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of Heights and Distances, Navigation, Nautical Astronomy, Surveying and Levelling, Natural Philosophy, and perhaps the French and Spanish Languages.

The studies for the third year have not yet been fully arranged: they will probably proceed so far as to include the completion of the branches already mentioned, with such additions as may be found practicable and deemed useful.

In conformity to this system of studies, the school is to be divided into three classes, denominated the junior class, the middle class, and the senior class: one class will leave and another class will enter in each year. The whole number of scholars will be limited for the present by the extent of accommodations in the school room. Desks are now provided for eighty scholars, and perhaps more may be hereafter accommodated if it shall be found necessary.

By what the committee consider a judicious but partial application of the Monitorial system, the services of one instructer have proved to be amply sufficient for the government of the school. It has been found unnecessary to resort to severe corporal chastisement. Records are kept of the conduct of the scholars, which are regularly exhibited to the parents and to the committee. The severest punishment for improper conduct is a forfeiture of the privilege of attending the school.

It is the design of the committee to procure suitable apparatus to illustrate experimentally the most important applications of the principles of Natural Philosophy, and also to provide other necessary apparatus for Mathematical demonstrations.

The committee take pleasure also in stating publicly that a Library has been commenced by the present instructers and members of the school, containing already nearly 100 volumes, and that regulations have been voluntarily adopted which will secure its regular and constant increase.'

AMERICAN ASYLUM AT HARTFORD FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

[The following brief extracts are all that our limits will permit us to offer, from a very interesting pamphlet entitled 'Twelfth Report of the Directors of the American Asylum at Hartford for the Education and Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, exhibited to the Asylum May 10, 1828.]

Present Condition of the Asylum.—It is is now eleven years since the Asylum was opened for the reception of pupils. Its successive annual Reports have contained such full and minute statements of its internal concerns, with regard to the course and modes of instruction, the management and government of the pupils, the accommodations for their health and comfort, and the arrangements, now carried into very successful operation, for teaching those whose friends desire it, some useful mechanical employment, that the Directors deem it unnecessary, again, to enter upon the details of these various topics; and consider it sufficient to state, that, during the past year, the same general good order has prevailed among the pupils, and the same satisfactory progress in their studies, been made, as have, heretofore, furnished cause of encouragement to all who have felt interested in the welfare of the Institution,

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and of devout gratitude to Almighty God for the protection and prosperity which, in His kind providence, He has vouchsafed to afford it.*

Number of pupils from various States.—The sister State of Massachusetts, embracing a large population of the deaf and dumb, and possessing abundant resources for carrying into effect the most splendid enterprises, with an enlargement of views and a generosity of feeling, alike creditable to herself and gratifying to the Directors, as long ago as 1819, made provision for sending a certain number of pupils to the Asylum. This provision has been continued, and of late increased, so that, during the past year, no less than fifty six pupils, from that State, have been supported at the Asylum.

The example of Massachusetts has since been followed by the States of New Hampshire, Maine, and Vermont,

The Legislatures of these four States, more fully to be satisfied of the expediency of such measures, and more minutely to become acquainted with the actual state and management of the Asylum, appointed commissioners to meet at Hartford for this purpose. They assembled, seven in number, in January, 1825. At the conference which took place between them and the Directors, a full exposition was made of the condition of the Asylum, its management, its funds, its resources, its expenditures, and its prospects. The Directors deemed it safe to say in their ninth Report, 'that after a very minute and full investigation, the commissioners were satisfied that the terms proposed to them were such as would enable the Asylum *to do the most good, and in the most effectual way, to the Deaf and Dumb of our common country.*

Ninety nine pupils have been supported, at the Asylum, during the past year, by these four States, either in whole, or in part, (in the latter case, their friends making up the deficiency.)

Benefit imparted by the Institution as a model for others.—The Directors of the Pennsylvania Institution, which began under the instruction of a self-taught teacher, deemed it desirable, not long afterwards, to apply to this Asylum for aid. It was promptly and generously afforded. For this purpose, Mr. Clerc was released, for a whole winter, from his situation here, and went to Philadelphia, since which time, that institution has been furnished from this with its present Principal, and two assistant teachers.

The Directors of the Kentucky Institution, which began also under the instruction of self-taught teachers, meeting with similar embarrassments, sent their present Principal to this Asylum to be qualified for the successful discharge of his duties, and every facility for improvement was afforded him.

The Directors of the Ohio Institution, lately incorporated, have made a similar application to this Asylum in behalf of a gentleman whom they sent here, a few weeks since, to acquire such information as will enable him to conduct the course of instruction in that establishment, and he, also, will be furnished with the same assistance.

AMERICAN MISSIONARY SEMINARY AT JAFFNA, CEYLON.

[*From the First Report of the American Missionary Seminary, Jaffna, Ceylon. Nellore. Church Mission Press.* 1827. pp. 14.]

The way for the formation of a seminary had been, in a degree, prepared by the establishment, somewhat extensively, of native free schools; and, more especially, by that of charity boarding schools, connected with the families of

* The present number of pupils is 132.—Ed.

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the mission, in which a large number of children and youth, taken from their friends and placed directly under the control of the missionaries, were early laying the foundation for such an acquaintance with the English language, as would open to them the road to European science; and were acquiring such habits of study, and such a knowledge of their own language, as would enable them to bring to light the fancied, or real, treasures of Tamul literature. Provision had been made for the support and instruction of a considerable larger number of such children and youth, than, on account of the inconvenience of carrying them forward in separate schools at the five different stations of the mission, had actually been taken. The system, however, by which the children of heathen parents were brought under the influence of a christian education, in the midst of idolaters, was evidently most promising as to its results, and could not be abandoned. It seemed rather to demand completion in the establishment of a higher seminary, for which it had prepared the way. This only would relieve the missionaries from the embarrassment of managing so many separate schools—this only, enable them to extend the benefits of a suitable education to so large a number as were called for by a charitable public—and this only, give these youth that thorough discipline of mind, and that compass of knowledge, necessary to their deriving any very solid benefits from previous acquirements.

The materials for a higher seminary were, in some measure, at command. Students were already waiting to enjoy its benefits. There were one hundred and five under instruction when the Prospectus was published, selected from nearly twice the number, received on trial at different times; a considerable class of whom, of good promise, were prepared to enter upon the prescribed studies. Others would follow, in course, from the charity boarding schools of the mission; so that the prospect was sufficiently fair for a succession of students—a most important circumstance in the projection of such a seminary. Instructers and funds also, adequate to an encouraging commencement of the Institution, could be immediately provided by the mission; and calculated on, from various sources, with some confidence, for its successful prosecution. Had the missionaries relied upon themselves for the ultimate instruction and management of the seminary, they might, indeed, have well been more distrustful; but, they could not doubt that were a *beginning* once made, men of sufficient learning, talents, and devotedness, would be found to carry forward the design.

[*To be Concluded.*]

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The Third Class Book; comprising Reading Lessons for Young Scholars. Second Edition, greatly improved. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 18mo. pp. 216.

The first edition of this class book was mentioned, our readers will recollect, in a former number. In its present form, the work comes recommended by a careful revision, and by some changes which seem to adapt it more exactly to

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the capacity of young children. On the whole, it affords one of the best selections of the kind, for general use; and it possesses the additional value of being well suited for class reading in female schools.

The new edition, we are glad to see, is respectable in its execution, and contains a larger proportion of poetry than the former. We should still like to see, in a book for children, some pieces descriptive of native scenery and manners; but we are aware that hitherto our more competent authors have but seldom turned their attention to the business of writing for the rising generation, about home scenes and local incidents; so that it is comparatively difficult to find materials of the kind to which we allude. Diligence, however, might command a few; and a short appendix, composed of these, would, we think, add greatly to the value of another edition; while by the use of a type rather smaller, though equally clear, little or no additional expense would need to be incurred.

The compiler of this volume will, we hope, receive our suggestions in good part; as we do not speak of his book without experience in the daily use of it, nor without a high opinion of its excellence.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Evenings in Boston. Second Series. Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 18mo. pp. pp. 131.

This series possesses all the interest of the first, with a still higher and more uniform merit of a moral and literary kind. There is much useful information contained in this volume, and communicated in a very pleasing manner. The style possesses an uncommon degree of accuracy, combined with ease, and cultivated taste. These are valuable considerations in a work designed for youth; and in such characteristics many of our current juvenile publications are very deficient. It may not be unimportant to add that the materials of this little work, though exclusively original, are not drawn from fictitious sources, but consist chiefly of interesting facts connected with geography and history. On this account the book is well adapted to a class of readers for whom it is very difficult to find proper books, we mean young people who cannot strictly be called *children*, and who therefore feel above the perusal of most juvenile books, and yet need entertainment, (if not instruction,) of a character more simple and familiar than is to be found in most books for adults.

Little Emery's Sunday Lesson. Designed for Children four or five years old. One of a Series of Stories by the Author of 'Fruit and Flowers.' Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1828. 18mo. pp. 15.

This is one of the series of stories mentioned in our last. It possesses more strikingly, perhaps, than any of the others, the characteristic of a peculiar facility in addressing the minds of young children in a simple and natural way.

As a guide and model for maternal instruction, it may be of very great service; and to teachers it may prove useful, as a favourable specimen of affectionate and rational tuition, not only rendering its subject plain and intelligible, but breathing throughout a considerate tenderness of manner—a source of peculiar influence over the dispositions of childhood.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

POPULAR IMPROVEMENT.

[Our readers will be gratified, we think, at observing the following evidences of the diffusion of a spirit for general improvement, in various parts of the country. It is pleasing to see activity excited so extensively for useful objects; and not the less so that the undertaking here suggested—and, indeed, already advanced, in many places, to a good degree of progress—embraces excellent facilities for the improvement of education, in that department particularly which most requires reformation—the instruction of district schools. Seminaries for teachers are not as yet in regular operation to any considerable extent; and, desirable as they are, it must be some time before one teacher in a hundred can obtain the benefit of them. The society proposed in the following extracts, furnishes an accessible school of good practical instruction for teachers, to every town where interest and enterprize sufficient can be called into action.

The general objects of the Lyceum, the dissemination of intelligence, the formation of intellectual taste, and the promotion of moral improvement, are obviously of great importance in every point of view—so much so that any observation of ours on such topics would be useless. We leave these subjects to their own weight with the minds of all who may peruse the following paragraphs.

The first of these extracts, it will be observed, is from a communication in the Richmond Visitor, the second from a similar article in the Boston Recorder; the third is from a correspondent of our own publication; and the fourth is a circular issued by Mr. Holbrook, the individual whom we have had occasion more than once to mention, as taking an active part in the form-

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mation of associations such as are described in his advertisements.]

Society for the improvement of Education.

For the Visitor and Telegraph.—Mr. Editor, The object of this communication is to submit to your readers a few considerations, on *two* very important suggestions which I have lately seen noticed in the Journal of Education, (published in Boston,) recommending the adoption of certain measures, which, I think, would give a new impulse to education in our state, and be productive of great and beneficial effects. One is, the formation of a society for the improvement of education, the other which might be accomplished, with little trouble and expense in every common school, viz. having a library belonging to every school. And first, we wish local societies and associations to be formed under the direct impulse of local circumstances; similar to the county associations in Connecticut for the improvement of education. Let intelligent and influential men in every county be associated for this purpose; who shall give their united efforts and particular countenance to the improvement of schools. Who shall visit the schools in their county, attend examinations, become acquainted with the mode of discipline and instruction; and be expected to propose any alteration in any particular. The effects which would result from the cooperation of such an association must be apparent to all.

To direct public sentiment, and awaken a deep and active interest, in the public, is the most essential requisite to the success of education. The formation of such a society would produce this effect more directly and certainly than any other plan which could be adopted. Its peculiar province would be to offer information and opinions to the community, and induce those who have authority, to act on them. The systems of teaching, even in our best schools, are very imperfect, and the teachers too often incompetent to discharge their duties. The books used, and the adapting of various studies to different stages of the mind, are often managed injudiciously and with great injury to the pupil. The associated efforts of a society, such as is proposed, would greatly aid the teacher and benefit the child. No one is acquainted with a sufficient number of facts to draw conclusions, on which he may rely. One may be informed as to one particular, and another, on another; but no individual can take a view of the whole ground. These advantages can only be secured

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by concentrated and vigorous efforts. The teacher knowing that the diligence and fidelity with which he discharges his duty, are observed by vigilant and intelligent men, and through these, by the public, would not fail, at the hazard of his reputation, to give his whole time and exertions, to his duties. Some teachers do not need this stimulus, but with a large majority how necessary is it!—Under the auspices of such an association, our schools would not be supplied with men incompetent to teach, both from want of information and disposition: men of education and talents would be induced to engage in teaching and to make it a professional business. In England and France, societies though more extensive than could be formed at once in our country, have been formed, and are receiving the assistance of the most eminent statesmen, in those countries. In New-England, education is receiving great benefit from the superintendence of committees.

2d. But we have proposed to consider another improvement; one which we think would tend greatly to enhance the usefulness and influence of schools, viz., to attach to every school a library of juvenile books. We mean not an expensive collection but such as might be procured at a trifling expense, and suited to interest the minds of young children. Let individuals interested in a school, voluntarily engage to bear the expenses. And no doubt there are many, who, through benevolence merely, would contribute to this object. But do any doubt if children can become interested, through curiosity, in any book? We have seen it done, wherever it has been tried; we have seen children as young as 7 or 8 years, as much interested in a simple and interesting story, (such as Lazy Lawrence) as persons of mature minds would be in a novel. There is no doubt but that many a child who would receive the rod, at every recitation, rather than study his lesson, would read with delight and eagerness, a little story. If this be the fact how much useful talent is lost, for the want of encouragement, which could be given with so little trouble and expense. Could children at school have suitable books laid before them by their tutor, and be encouraged to read them, the probability is, that most if not all, would by the time they leave school have cultivated a fondness for reading; and thus even those who have only an English education, would go into the world prepared to make well informed and useful men. But now most of this class are as destitute of general information as they are of Latin or Greek. Could a taste for reading be cultivated at school, when engaged in business, their leisure hours, which are now devoted to idleness and dissipation, would

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be given to seeking useful information. Might not many victims of vice be thus rescued from ruin, and their time and talents secured to the cause of morality?

Benefits of the Lyceum as a social institution.

For the Recorder.—Messrs. Editors, It may perhaps be a proper inquiry, whether the deficiency both of intellectual and moral taste, which forms so unhappy a trait in the character of a large majority, even of the citizens of New-England, does not arise from the almost total neglect of means to furnish young people with places of resort, where they can cultivate, not only their social, but their intellectual and moral faculties; where their social intercourse and amusements shall be turned in such a channel as to refine their feelings, enlighten, elevate, and dignify their minds, and soften and purify their hearts; where they shall be furnished both with inducements and means for carrying on, at their stated meetings, and in their daily intercourse, a plan of conversation, reading and other exercises, which will call into operation all the faculties that constitute their dignity and worth, and lay the foundation of their hopes.

If every town should be furnished with a place of meeting for young people and others, where should be deposited for their use, books, apparatus for illustrating the important branches of a popular practical education, and specimens in natural history; and if the same interest should be taken, and the same efforts made for conducting a course of weekly instruction, as operate in favour of Sabbath Schools, it would probably not fail of producing a good effect. It would give direction to their conversation, and lead them to a course of reading and study, which would tend to enlighten and expand their minds; and by giving them a respect for their own characters, would raise them above vulgar pleasures, and debasing vices.

At such a place teachers might hold weekly meetings, and introduce such exercises as would tend to improve themselves, and raise the character of their schools. Misses and lads, young ladies and gentlemen, who now almost waste their time in district schools, might receive instruction upon such subjects, and under such advantages, as are fitted to their age, advancement, and pursuits. At such a place, societies of ladies, or of gentlemen, or both, which are formed for benevolent and literary objects, might hold their meetings and increase the success of their operations. Here also Bible classes and Sabbath schools might

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meet, and receive light and strength from the common fountain. In a word it might be a place to which persons of every age, condition, and pursuit, might occasionally resort, to advance their intellectal and moral prosperity, and to add their portion of aid to the universal diffusion of knowledge and religion, to the prosperity and perpetuity of our government, and the continuance and happiness of our nation.

Knowing that many others have views of this subject similar to my own, I trust I shall be excused for suggesting the question, for consideration, whether it would not be good policy for towns, while they are providing for the support of common schools, to provide means to have their benefits increased, extended, and continued, by presenting opportunities for the instruction and improvement of those who have ceased to be profited by their instruction ; to take some measures to direct amusements and social intercourse in channels, which will lead to intelligence, respectability, and happiness. Such is the object of the Lyceums which are established in different parts of the country.

The Lyceum proposed as an aid to popular education.

To the Editor of the Teacher's Guide.—Among enlightened minds, there is I believe, but one opinion respecting the importance or necessity of a Board of Education. It is quite evident, that no measures of a uniform, general, or efficient character can be taken, until the views and efforts of individuals are concentrated and combined.

Though it cannot be made a question whether it is, or is not desirable and necessary for a society or Board to be organized for the general purpose of diffusing knowledge, and particularly for introducing a uniform and improving system of Popular Education, the manner of organizing and conducting its operations, is a question worthy of mature deliberation. It will be agreed by all, that it is a grand point, to induce and enable the whole community to partake, both of its spirit and advantages, as far as possible. To do this, it will probably be necessary to have such a society so organized, that it will be supplied with regular channels of communication with every section, and every department of the community, both for diffusing and receiving information.

To infuse life and vigour into every part, and all the extremities of the body on which it is designed to operate, it ought to

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be connected, both by a vein and an artery with every town and every village of the county for which it is intended.

To establish this connexion, to furnish these channels for collecting and diffusing knowledge, and for keeping up a healthy and vigorous action through the whole system, I beg leave to propose through the Journal, that the towns and villages in New England, should have established in each, upon some uniform plan, a society for mutual improvement and the improvement of schools, or for the general purpose of advancing the interests of popular and *practical* education. To have each society supplied with books, particularly a juvenile library, apparatus for familiar and practical illustrations in the sciences, and a collection of specimens in geology and mineralogy, and such other articles as they shall think fitted to advance their own interests or those of the public. These articles to be deposited in some convenient place for all classes who are disposed to resort to it, and particularly for young people to hold periodical meetings for the purpose of receiving instruction from such person or persons as will undertake or shall be procured to give it; which meetings will furnish an opportunity and occasion to return books, and receive others from the library. To have all the societies in a county united by a Board of Delegates, which shall be a Board of Education for the county, and auxiliary to a general one for the state. The general Board to consist of delegates or representatives sent from the several county Boards. To have published under the patronage of the General Board a periodical journal, pamphlets, and tracts, containing treatises on various branches of science and useful knowledge generally, and such works as shall be thought calculated to diffuse intelligence, and promote activity throughout the society and the community in general.

If the Legislature of each of the New England states should authorize such a board to act in behalf of schools and of popular education generally, it would not be difficult to establish some connexion or communication by annual meetings of representatives or otherwise, between all the state Boards, and by that means give uniformity, symmetry, energy and effect, to a system of operations, designed to qualify the rising generation to to be useful to themselves and the world, to obey and resemble their Creator, and to advance in knowledge and goodness.

Circular.

[The first part of the following advertisements was communi-

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cated in substance in a former number. But as it seemed desirable that the whole should be presented at one view, it was thought preferable to incur the risk of repetition on a subject of so much importance.]

American Lyceum.—The undersigned agree to associate under the name of the Branch of the American Lyceum, and adopt the following articles for their Constitution.

Art. 1. The objects of the Lyceum are the improvement of its members in useful knowlege, and the advancement of Popular Education, by introducing uniformity and improvements in common schools, by becoming auxiliary to a Board of Education.

Art. 2. To effect these objects, they will procure a cabinet, consisting of books, apparatus for illustrating the sciences, and a collection of minerals, and will hold meetings for discussions, dissertations, illustrating the sciences, or other exercises which shall be thought expedient.

Art. 3. Any person may be a member of the Lyceum, by paying into the treasury annually, two dollars; and twenty dollars paid at any one time, will entitle a person, his or her heirs or assigns, to one membership forever. Persons under eighteen years of age will be entitled to all the privileges of the Society, except of voting, for one half the annual sum above named.

Art. 4. The officers of this branch of the Lyceum shall be a President, Vice President, Treasurer, Recording and Corresponding Secretaries, three or five Curators, and three Delegates, to be appointed by ballot on the first Wednesday of September annually.

Art. 5. The President, Vice President, Treasurer, and Secretaries, will perform the duties usually implied in those offices. The Curators will have charge of the Cabinet and all other property of the Lyceum not appertaining to the Treasury, and will be the general agents to do any business for the Society under their direction. The delegates will meet delegates from branches of the Lyceum in this county semi-annually, to adopt regulations for their general and mutual benefit, or to take measures to introduce uniformity and improvements into common schools, and to diffuse useful and practical knowledge generally through the community, particularly to form and aid a Board of Education.

Art. 6. To raise the standard of common education, and to benefit the juvenile members of the Lyceum, a portion of the

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books procured shall be fitted to young minds; and teachers of schools may be permitted to use for the benefit of their pupils who are members of the Lyceum, the apparatus and minerals under such restrictions as the association shall prescribe.

Art. 7. The President or any five members will have power at any time to call a special meeting, which meeting shall be legal, if notice shall be given according to the direction in the By-Laws.

Art. 8. The Lyceum will have power to adopt such regulations and by-laws as shall be necessary for the management and use of the Cabinet, for holding meetings, or otherwise for their interest.

Art. 9. The foregoing articles may be altered or amended by vote of two thirds present, at any legal meeting; said alteration or amendment having been proposed at a meeting, not less than four weeks previous to the one at which it is acted upon.

Apparatus for Schools, Academies, and Lyceums.—A set of apparatus, of a simple and practical character, particularly designed for illustrating the most important branches of a popular education in Schools and Lyceums, is already devised and collected, and consists of the following list, and numerous other articles, as they shall be called for: viz.

For the Mathematics, are a diagram, to illustrate the nature and uses of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; several diagrams to show properties and uses of the different superficial figures, such as circles, ellipses, squares, triangles, &c., with the method of finding their contents; models of various solids, viz., of cylinders, prisms, cones, pyramids, parallelopipids, and spheres, fitted to illustrate the method of measuring wood, timber, cisterns, bins, cellars, wells, canals, &c. &c., also the different quantity of surface necessary to enclose a given bulk in different shaped solids.

For Natural Philosophy, are a set of mechanical powers, viz. levers, simple and compound; pulleys, single and multiplied; wheel and axis; wedge; screw and inclined plane; a hydrostatic bellows and syphon, intended to illustrate the laws and power of water, particularly the hydrostatic press.

For Chemistry, are a pneumatic cistern, an iron cylinder for making gasses by heat, a flexible tube, and such other articles as shall be called for.

For Astronomy, are a representation of the solar system, a globe for showing the change of seasons, the five zones, the

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equator, ecliptic, and meridians; several articles for illustrating eclipses, a machine for tides, another to show why there is a tide on the side of the earth opposite to the moon, and one to show why the earth and other planets are flattened at the poles.

The articles in the above list can be procured for fifty dollars.

Collection of Minerals.—Specimens in Geology and Mineralogy, intended to represent one hundred of the most useful productions in the mineral kingdom, are collected in quantities sufficient to supply such Schools, Lyceums, and individuals, as shall wish to procure them, and consist of the following minerals, viz.:—

Quartz, 3 varieties; mica, 2; felspar, 2; granite, 6; gneiss, 2; mica slate, 3; lime, 4; marbles, 12; hornblende, 2; hornblende rocks, 5; argillite, 2; talc, 2; tacose rocks, (soap stone,) 3; sand stone, 3; gray wackle, 3; chlorite, 1; chlorite slate, 2; gypsum, 4; porphyry, 3; amygdaloid, 1; asbestus, 2; serpentine, 2; jasper, 1; clay, 3; soils, 5; coal, 10; iron, 10; lead, 1; copper, 1; graphite, 1; rock salt, 1.

Each specimen will be labelled and numbered; with a description of its ingredients, properties, uses, and localities, in a small volume to accompany each set.

The collection above named, with the volume, can be procured for twenty dollars.

☞ Letters upon the subject of apparatus or minerals directed to Josiah Holbrook, Boston, will be duly attended to.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

Plan for a Fellenberg School, in a letter addressed to Jonathan Roberts, President of the Pennsylvania Agricultural Society, from Anthony Morris, Esq.

WASHINGTON, DEC. 31, 1827.

Dear Sir,—I am much gratified to find that your opinion of the Fellenberg system of education accords with those which I had expressed, as well as those I had received from other persons distinguished for their judgment, and devoted to the interests of agriculture and science, and to their extension throughout the Union.

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To introduce into Pennsylvania, in the first instance, an Agricultural Institute, connected with a general system of scientific and liberal instruction, so extensive as to give, in the country, all the means of education now only attainable in colleges and cities, would be obviously an attempt beyond the resources of individual farmers, and must rely for its success on public opinion, that all powerful instrument in modern times, of effecting every end either of good or evil.

To ascertain, therefore, how far such a system would be sustained by public opinion in Pennsylvania, and generally in the United States, has been my first object. For this purpose my earliest references have been made to the agricultural societies of Pennsylvania, and to those individuals most known for their devotion to the extension of knowledge, and the improvement of our systems of education, especially in the country. Thus far my inquiries have resulted in the most satisfactory evidences of a general desire to improve the moral and intellectual character of our country population, and a conviction that this can only effectually be done by a system of education appropriate to this portion of our fellow citizens. Should further inquiry, by a more extended correspondence, confirm my impressions that public opinion is prepared for this system, a more detailed statement of of its character, and the benefits expected from it, will be presented on the return of a gentleman to the United States, who went to Switzerland, and has resided some time at Hoffwyl, with the express object of obtaining all the requisite information, and of whose character and talents we have the most satisfactory references here, as well as the opinion of Mr. Fellenberg himself, of his competency, and preparation for the part intended to be offered to him. I must defer, until his return, the statements and estimates to which you allude—he is expected in the spring.

No other fund has been contemplated as essential to the success of the establishment by its friends, than the subscription of responsible names for the requisite number of scholars; which, in the first instance, would be about one hundred, at perhaps two hundred dollars per annum for the school of general instruction. On the faith of these names, and presuming on the advance of one half year's tuition on its commencement, the requisite funds for preparation in buildings, &c., it is believed, might be easily raised in Philadelphia.

One hundred acres of land is supposed adequate to the agricultural department, and, for the exclusively labouring class, the experience of Mr. Fellenberg is, that the results of their labour

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paid for their education, subsistence, and clothing, leaving to each a moderate excess. To this class, and to that which would unite an agricultural to a liberal education, more or less extensive, according to the means and wishes of the scholars, the immediate benefits of the plan are most evident, in addition to the general benefit which the extension of the circles of science beyond our cities and colleges, would confer on the country.

On a farm prepared for a proper distribution of labour, having its buildings systematically arranged with every view to economy, provided with the due proportion of labourers, whom we will call apprentices, and possessing the requisite capital to conduct the whole system, (which Mr. Fellenberg has reduced to a science,) with the economy, regularity, and industry to which rural labours on such a farm may be subjected, you will readily see results in Pennsylvania, such as the Fellenberg system has realized in Switzerland, and school farms in which science would preside ; and industry, intelligence, and happiness, would be the fruits, instead of indolence, idleness, and misery.

Such would be the happy change to the country population of Pennsylvania, should the system take root among us, and become the substitute for our roadside schools, which, in general, seem only intended to expose to travellers the rude state of science in our country, and the total want of an appropriate education for its population.

Our moderate farmers and mechanics would find at their doors a liberal and practical system of education prepared for their sons, and the labouring classes would be simultaneously employed and educated, as in the system referred to, the hours of relaxation from bodily labour, are devoted to intellectual improvement.

Thus, labour, is made to pay for education, and education to be the reward of labour, and both uniting in the same person to form a character as different from that of the uninstructed, undisciplined, and often intemperate clown, as the free, industrious, and intelligent farmer, mechanic and labourer of a republic ought to be, from the dependent, degraded, and ignorant slave.

We may in vain look for reforms from ignorance and intemperance in any other source than a good education, of which, perhaps, the best parts are, the early formation of good habits, the regular presence of good examples, the sure foundations of Christian doctrine, and the constant guards of a vigilant discipline ; all these essential ingredients seem more easily united

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in the country, than in colleges, and I have never seen them so efficiently united, as on the farm of the truly illustrious Fellenberg; hence my anxiety to have his system received and naturalized among us, and not only because it would be a public blessing, but because I wish to see such a system, prepared for that portion of my family which remains to be educated. You must not suppose that I aspire to the character of a reformer; I only claim the merit of endeavouring to introduce into our own country, and into our own state, a system of education, which I have seen successfully established in Switzerland, after an experience of near twenty years, during which time its operations and results have received the sanction of many of the most eminent scientific, literary and practically useful men in Europe; among these I will now only refer you to the late eminent Professor Pictet, and his brother Charles Pictet, of Geneva, the Count Capo d'Istrias, who visited the Institute at Hoffwyl, by order of the late Emperor Alexander, the late Hon. Mr. Horner, Brougham, and Mr. Jeffrey; the commissioners appointed by the Diet of the cantons of Switzerland, and to their report.

Such are the men who have visited, approved, and recommended the Hoffwyl Institution to their respective governments.

(*To be Concluded.*)

INTELLIGENCE.

BOOKS FOR COMMON SCHOOLS IN VERMONT.

The Board of Commissioners for Common Schools, appointed by the Legislature of the State of Vermont, in fulfilment of a duty enjoined by law, propose to the superintending committees of the several towns, and to the people generally, the following list of books as suitable and proper, in their opinion, to be used in common schools in this state, to wit:—

For young Pupils.—Franklin Primer, Worcester's Primer.

Spelling Books—Marshall's Spelling Book, Hazen's do. do., Emerson's National do. do.

Reading Books—Leavitt's Easy Lessons, Boston Reading Lessons, Pierpoint's National Reader, Murray's English Reader, New Testament, without note or comment.

Geography—Goodrich's outlines of Modern Geography, Woodbridge's Geography.

English Grammar—Murray's Grammar, Nutting's do., Greenleaf's Grammar Simplified.

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History—Goodrich's History of the United States, Hale's do. do., Whelpley's Compend, Tytler's Elements of History, Worcester's do. do.

Arithmetic—Smith's Practical and Mental Arithmetic, Adams' New do., Thompson's New do.

In presenting this list to the consideration of the superintending committees, the commissioners deem it proper to remark, that they have been governed in their selections, chiefly, by two considerations—first, that the books therein named are already in extensive use, and may easily be obtained, in the different sections of the State—secondly, that they are well adapted in design and execution to the the purposes of common school education.

Many books of the same class present claims, nearly equal, to public favour and patronage. In several instances, the commissioners have found that this circumstance greatly increased the difficulty and embarrassments naturally incident to this branch of their duties. Several books of considerable merit have been presented to them for examination, which, in their opinion, do not come within the scope and intention of the Act from which they derive their powers.

To the introduction of the New Testament, under the restriction above proposed, it is believed that no reflecting man will seriously object. Aside from the acknowledged importance of an early acquaintance with religious truth, its pure and sublime morality, its simplicity of style, and the spirit of expansive benevolence which it breathes, give it strong claims, in the judgment of the commissioners, to a place in our primary schools.

They submit the propriety of their decision to the candid and enlightened judgment of the community, and indulge the hope that the several books which they have ventured to recommend will satisfy the wishes, and receive the approbation of those who are concerned and interested in the instruction and regulation of common schools.

The commissioners, in preparing their annual report to the legislature, at their next session, intend to state more in detail, so far as they may deem it necessary, what they consider to be the peculiar excellences and merits of the books embraced in the above list. They think it proper, also, on this occasion, to remark, that they have it in contemplation to recommend and advise, in that report, such an alteration of the School Act of last session as will take from the superintending committees of the several towns, the power, absolutely '*to direct and determine*,' what 'class books' shall be used in the several schools, and as will leave the towns and schools to act upon the *recommendation* merely of the said committees in such manner as they shall deem most expedient.

The commissioners are of opinion that the advice and suggestions of the superintending committees, as to school books, would be generally followed, that all cause of collision, jealousy, and misunderstanding between the committees and the towns and schools would be thereby removed, and that the important and beneficial results, anticipated by the friends of our common school system, would be fully realized.

W. Hall, C. K. Williams, J. Collamer, B. F. Bailey, E. Paddock, Board of Commissioners for Common Schools.—*Montpelier, June 26, 1828.—Vermont Patriot.*

MORAL REFORMATION.

[The following article is extracted from a communication in the Boston Advertiser.]

The writer of this having visited by invitation of the Directors, the *Institution for the Reformation of Juvenile Offenders*, at South Boston, was so struck with the admirable management and the practical results of the sys-

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tem, that he cannot resist a desire to bring it to the notice of the public, in the hope that it will be countenanced and cherished as one of the most important and useful establishments of our land.

Without seeing its operation, the very nature and objects of the system will convice any one that if its practical execution should equal its theoretical merits, it must have a most favourable effect on the morals and character of the community. The youth of populous cities are peculiarly exposed to crime, many of them are almost driven to it by necessity. A portion of them are without parents or natural friends; others are in a still worse condition, having parents who by precept and example encourage them in vicious courses; and some, perhaps not a few, are the instruments of more guilty fathers and mothers, who profit of the depredation committed by their children.

If any punishment should be inflicted, the rod of the master would be more suitable than the prison where their bodies and minds will be equally cramped, and become incapable of any change but that of distortion and disease. What more terrible than to immure in the physically and morally foul apartments of a jail, a child of eight or ten years of age, without means of instruction or information, and then to turm him into the world with an atmosphere about him which will repel every thing fitted to purify his body or his soul!

How deeply does it concern the community to take these little creatures by the hand, when they shall have committed the first offence—withdraw them from contamination and guilt—provide the means of industry and education—soften their minds to the reception of moral and religious truth—and gradually, by gentle treatment and wholesome discipline, lure them into habits of order, truth, and honesty. * * * * * * * * * *

We first saw the boys, in the whole about 80, distributed in groups in different apartments, all diligently employed in some useful handicraft—cheerful and busy, in their working clothes, and under the superintendence of one of their number who acted as monitor. The girls, about 15, were at work by themselves, under a woman teaching them to sew. After a walk about the grounds, we returned to the house, and found all the boys with their frugal dress suits on, ready for examination by the superintendent—they marched into the school in military order, like young recruits—perfectly clean, and in a plain uniform, made at the house, consisting of a jockey, blue jacket, and white trowsers, the cost of a suit being but one dollar.

In this examination I could see nothing different from what takes place at our common schools. In geography, grammar, minor arithmetic, they seemed to me to answer as well—in the elements of religion and morals they appeared to have been instructed. They followed the master in one or two simple hymns, in a low voice, literally making a concord of sweet sounds. And at a signal they fell upon their knees in the most perfect order, and made regular responses to a part of the church service performed by the Rev. Mr. Wells, of the Episcopal clergy, who is instructer, task master, chaplain, every thing in this most interesting establishment. And there never was a man whom gentleness firmness, zeal and enthusiasm in a good cause, better qualified to do this great service to the public. After this, we resorted to the Gymnasium. Sure I am that no boys from the best schools in our city could have shown more heart in their gambols—so that after this scene, and seeing them at table with their generous and wholesome food, which they attacked as boys should do, it was apparent that this mighty change in their condition was produced without any of that austerity which sometimes kills in the attempt to cure.

I came away delighted with this—prison shall I call it? No—school of reformation, for such it is, and ought to be for such subjects.

Here is practical ground to go upon—vice is checked in the bud—the tender plant is straightened, and grows into a tree, and will bear fruit, possibly even an hundred fold—crime is forgotten—a new nature is formed, or new habits created, and I am much mistaken if society does not feel the benefit in the diminution of offenders.

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NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The Pupil's Arithmetic, whereby the practical use of Figures is demonstrated in a series of Original Questions. Adapted to the capacities of Youth. By Seth Davis. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 1828. 18mo. pp. 183.

This is a neat little volume, prepared with considerable labour, and carefully adapted to the average capacity of young children in elementary schools. It differs from other works of the same class, chiefly in its simplicity and brevity, and in the plain and useful character of the questions. The plan and design of the work are thus mentioned in the preface.

'It has been the design of the author so to arrange the questions in the following pages as to lead the scholar, step by step, from the most simple questions in addition, to those which embrace the combination of all the cardinal rules. There are no answers given to any of the questions; as the long experience of the author has fully convinced him that this is attended with manifest disadvantages to the pupil, in acquiring the practical use of figures. When any question is involved in so much obscurity as not at first to be clearly understood, the manner of solving it is indirectly communicated by means of other questions, immediately preceding or following it.'

Selections from the Scriptures. Designed as Lessons in Reading for the use of Children. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1828. 12mo. pp. 150.

This volume corresponds in design and execution to the one for adults, mentioned in our last number. It is characterized by the same distinctness and beauty of typography, and the same judicious selection and arrangement. It must prove, we think, a very acceptable aid to teachers of elementary schools, in preparing classes to read with accuracy in the scriptures; and for young scholars in Sunday schools it furnishes a variety of instructive and interesting lessons, selected with reference to the capacity and the circumstances of children.

Sketches of the Natural History of Animals; for the use of Sunday Schools and Families. No. I. Boston. Wait, Greene, & Co. 1828. 18mo. pp. 54.

'As these "Sketches of Natural History" are particularly intended for the use of Sunday schools and families, they are interspersed with references to the sacred scriptures, and such reflections as naturally arise from a contemplation of that interesting portion of the visible creation to which they relate. Care has been taken to adapt the language and style to the capacities of the young; and every thing has been excluded which has a tendency to vitiate the juvenile mind.'

The author's objects, as expressed in these extracts from the advertisement, seem to be successfully accomplished. The volume is full of instruction and of rational entertainment, and contributes, at the same time, to the early formation of intelligent piety. The compiler has judiciously avoided whatever merely tends to foster a passion for the marvellous; while, by diligent research, he

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has presented a sufficient proportion of novelty and interest, from unquestionable sources.

We are glad to observe such an accession to the means of early education. The branch of science to which this publication belongs, is one on which young children enter with uncommon pleasure; it is one in which they can find both employment and relaxation; it is level to their capacity, and a knowledge of it favours an early taste for information. The 'Sketches' are in all respects finely adapted to these various objects, and possess the additional recommendation of embellishments executed with much taste, and with a strict regard to accuracy.

The occasional use of a copy of this interesting book, by way of recreation, would, we think, have a very salutary effect in primary schools. The work will, we hope, have a place in all juvenile and school libraries.

Gems in the Mine, or Traits and Habits of Childhood, in Verse. By Mary Elliot. James R. Buffum, Salem; and H. & G. Carter, and F. & J. Andrews, Lancaster. 1828. 18mo. pp. 104.

This volume is one which we cannot but wish that publishers generally would take as a model of execution in all little books designed for young children. Perfect neatness of exterior forms many pleasant associations with the contents of a work, in the mind of childhood; and there is no reason why any volume put into the hands of children, should be destitute of this passport to their favour. At least, there is no reason why we should pass off upon children, as 'embellished with engravings,' a volume disfigured, perhaps, by the awkward attempts of cheap and bungling artists, whose labour would certainly have been better expended in tilling the ground, than in caricaturing the aspect of nature.

The author of this volume is well known as a diligent and successful writer for childhood; and the present is, we think, one of her happiest efforts. Many of the pieces are characterized by great beauty and simplicity of style. Some, however, and we allude especially to those which are supposed to be spoken by the mother, are less successful in the vein of instruction which pervades them, and contain too many formal, arbitrary injunctions, and occasionally a thought above the comprehension of a child.

As a book for infant schools, not less than for the nursery, we would recommend this to the attention of teachers. They will find in it many little pieces finely suited to the early cultivation of the intellect and the heart.

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AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. IX. SEPTEMBER, 1828. VOL. III.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Period of the Consulate.—The ill success of the new plan * of public education in France was soon apparent, and it was evident that an improved organization was necessary. It was to be supposed, that the Convention, warned by experience, would now avoid the rocks on which it had formerly split; and certainly the system of 1802 was superior to that of 1794 in many respects; still, however, it was imperfect in the *ensemble*, though good in its parts.

A great deal of discussion took place in the National Assembly, when the plan was laid before it, on the 20th April, 1802, by Fourcroy, Rœderer, and Regnaud. When it is closely examined, its superiority over the former plans seems to be more in appearance than in reality, and it has defects that are not to be got over.

The principal features of this system, which seems, on the one hand, to have been overrated, and on the other too much depreciated, were these. It was divided into primary schools, secondary schools, lycea, and special schools. The primary schools were situated in the parishes (*communes*) under the jurisdiction of the municipal authorities, and their number was in proportion to the population. The master had a free dwelling house, and the revenue consisted in the fees paid by the parents of the scholars. The municipal council might admit children *free* when the parents were in a state of absolute poverty; but the number of

* See last No. of the Journal.—Ed.

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gratis admissions could never exceed one fifth of the total number of scholars.

In the secondary schools were taught the Latin and French languages, the first elements of history, geography, and mathematics; and any school, though under the management of a private person, teaching these branches of education, came under this head; new schools, however, could not be erected without the permission of government. These schools were placed under the jurisdiction of the prefect.

In the third order of schools, *lycea*, were taught the ancient languages, rhetoric, logic, and morals, also the principles of mathematical and physical science. Each district having a tribunal of appeal, had at least one lyceum, which could not have less than eight professors. The students of lycea consisted of young men, placed there directly by the government; of scholars from the secondary schools, who had undergone full examinations; of boarders, who paid their own expenses; and, lastly, of such as did not reside in the lycea, but merely attended the lectures, and paid accordingly. Each lyceum, had a provisor, (*Proviseur*,) a superintendent of study, (*Censeur d'etudes*,) and an officer to take charge of the affairs of the school, (*un Procureur gerant les affaires de l'ecole:*) they were nominated by the First Consul, and formed the administrative council of the school. In every town containing a lyceum there was established an office of administration, (*Bureau d'administration*,) the members of which were the prefect of the department, the president of the tribunal of appeal, the government commissary of that tribunal, the government commissary at the criminal court, the mayor and the provisor, (*Proviseur*). This council met at least four times a year, but oftener when the Provisor thought it necessary. The First Consul named three superintendents, to make a yearly visit to all the lycea of the republic, for the purpose of inquiring into the manner in which they were conducted. It was necessary that the office bearers of the lycea should be married, or have been married; and no female was permitted to reside within the circle of the student's residences.

When a vacancy presented itself among the teachers, the three superior government inspectors proposed one candidate, and the council of administration another, one or other of whom was nominated by the First Consul. The three great office bearers of the lycea might be transferred, like the teachers, from one lyceum to a superior. Demands to this effect were to be laid before the First Consul by the superior inspectors.

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The special schools, in which the highest branches of literature were taught, and in which the student completed his education, were placed under the jurisdiction of the Minister of the Interior; and when a vacancy occurred, the First Consul made a choice out of three candidates, proposed to him by a class of the institute, by the upper inspectors of studies, and by the teachers of the special school in which the vacancy occurred. The existing special schools were allowed to remain, and several new ones were formed; and one or more of these schools were attached to each lyceum, and governed by its council of administration.

In each fortress of the republic also was established a special military school for five hundred *elèves*, who were under military law. Two hundred of these were chosen out of the national *elèves* in the lycea, the rest from the other schools, and they were admitted after a proper examination. The military special schools were under the jurisdiction of the Minister of War, who likewise had the nomination of the professors.

The republic maintained at its own expense six thousand four hundred *elèves* in the lycea and special schools; of that number two thousand four hundred were children of parents who had served in the army, magistracy, or other government appointments. It was necessary they should have attained the age of nine years, and be able to read and write. The other four thousand *elèves* were chosen from the secondary schools, after a proper examination; each department presenting a certain number in proportion to its relative population.

These *elèves* could not remain more than six years in the lycea at the public charge. After completing their studies, they underwent an examination, and one fifth of the number were sent to the special schools, where they might be farther maintained for two or three years, at the public expense. The government retained the privilege of disposing of the *elèves* according to circumstances. The annual maintenance of each student came to 700 francs, (L.28,) and the board paid by parents, whose children were not at the national charge, could not exceed this sum. The out-students, as they may be called, who merely attended the classes, paid a certain fee fixed by the council of administration.

All the buildings belonging the lycea were kept up at the public expense, and a sinking fund was to be formed from a part, not exceeding the twentieth, of the incomes of the teachers and administrators, to be applied to the purpose of pensioning off

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those who had served twenty years, or who, form particular circumstances, were rendered unable to discharge their functions.

Such is a short sketch of the plan proposed and adopted by the National Assembly for regulating the course of public instruction throughout France. The chief difference between it and the former plan consists in the substitution of lycea for central schools. Instead of a hundred of the latter, which it was proposed to establish, there were to be thirty of the former,—a number, however, exceeding the number of central schools that were actually established. The most striking feature of this plan is,—what certainly was not to have been expected from a government that gave out liberty and equality as the objects of its worship,—the immense advantage given to the rich over the poorer classes of the people. Sixty four hundred government places were distributed to those who, after full trials, were found, from their qualifications and proficiency, deserving of them. But the primary and secondary schools were not maintained at the public expense; and, in consequence, it is evident that many parents from poverty were unable to send their children to obtain an education that might have entitled them to aspire to government pensions. The indigent class, therefore, which might have produced able and distinguished characters, laboured under a great disadvantage; while those, whose natural talents, perhaps, were far inferior, were enabled to advance in their career of success from possessing the means of obtaining a complete education. Many philanthropic Frenchmen were aware of this, and bewailed that the millions expended upon the lycea had not been applied to the payment of teachers in the primary schools, instead of being, as they deemed it, a source of favour, interest, corruption, and abuse.

While the higher schools were kept up by government, the inferior or people's schools were allowed to increase or diminish according to the abilities or inclination of individuals; for, as the expense of maintenance was at the charge of the scholars, when the poverty of a village prevented a good attendance, the school necessarily fell rapidly to decay. Government was startled at the enormous sum that would have been requisite to support a number of schools proportioned to the population of such a country as France, and the commissioners defended the superiority of their plan, and endeavoured to repel all objections to it by repeating the axiom of Smith, that education is always better conducted, teachers better chosen, and emulation greatest, when the institutions of instruction depend on the good opin-

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ion entertained of them by the public, than when they are subjected to the variable and uncertain jurisdiction of government. But this is an argument as applicable to the higher as to the inferior schools; and where it is deemed impossible that government should charge itself with the maintenance of the latter, it does not appear that there is any good reason for supposing it necessary or just that it should maintain the former.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

[The following article treats of female education in connexion chiefly with its influence on the condition and duties of the sex, and consequently on the improvement of early instruction, in all its departments. The views of the writer, though coinciding generally with those of other contributors to the Journal, are in some points original; and we feel the more indebted for this communication that it comes from one whose practical knowledge of the subject enables her to speak of it, not only from individual observation, but with the advantage of successful experience in teaching.]

Dr. Johnson complained 'that there are men who treat every new attempt as wild and chimerical; and look upon every attempt to depart from the beaten track as the effort of a warm imagination, or the glittering speculation of an exalted mind, that may please and dazzle for a time, but can produce no lasting advantage; who value themselves upon inventing arguments against every new undertaking, (and are perpetually calling for demonstration,) or if they cannot find arguments against it, upon treating it with ridicule and contempt. Such men have ever been the formidable enemies of the great benefactors of the world; for their notions of discourse are so agreeable to the lazy, the envious, and the timorous, that they seldom fail of becoming popular, and directing the opinions of mankind.'

'All that can be expected,' says Mr. Edgeworth, 'from a common school is to keep children poring over books that they cannot understand, or casting up sums, without making them acquainted with the reason for the rules they mechanically follow:—To make reading, writing, and calculating machines.

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Were the master ever so enlightened, he must conform to the expectations and demands of the parent. He must keep his scholars at work the given number of hours, or he cannot satisfy his employers. Until parents are convinced of the inefficacy of this system, things must remain as they are: when they are persuaded that a reform is necessary, the next thing to be considered is how it can be accomplished.

'A good system of management, as relates to temper, habits of truth, industry, cleanliness, neatness, and to forming habits of observation, reasoning, and good sense—objects of far greater consequence than merely teaching to read, write, and cast accounts—remains still to be executed.

'Much of the present enthusiasm which animates all classes of society to encourage schools for young children, is owing to the female sex. Females see the necessity of such schools,'—They *feel* the necessity of such schools! And let me ask, does not every thinking *man* also *feel* the injurious effects of the want of proper instruction and management of young children? Is it not the complaint of every philosopher, that the best part of life must be spent—not in adding to his stock of actual knowledge, but in unlearning his errors? And that that the utmost exertions of rectified reason are often inadquate to the task of shaking one free from the deeply imbued superstitions, the ten thousand biases of feeling and opinion of early imbibed prejudice? If these errors and prejudices are the result of early mismanagement, (and this management falls necessarily into the female province,) it follows, 'that to fit woman for the discharge of this duty would do more toward improving the condition of man, than all the great discoveries in science, and inventions in arts.'

The agitation about this subject that for several years has existed in this country, would seem to portend some great thing to be accomplished, and show an unequivocal indication that general intellect is actually in advance of its scholastic discipline, and having outstripped his tutor, seems *feeling* about for some guide to direct his course. It would seem rather sarcastic to say that this etherial being having left behind learned doctors, professors, and philosophers, stands waiting for a *female* guide! Yet if it be admitted that our system of education requires further renovation, I think any candid observer will pronounce the desideratum to be in the female department. Notwithstanding the increased attention that has been paid, within these few years, to that half of the species, yet no one will pronounce it in any degree proportioned to its importance in society; or that

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the facilities for the exaltation of female intellect are adequate to the demand of public sentiment. This granted, the consideration is, how is the renovation to be accomplished? It seems an incontrovertible sentiment, that woman—her late improved education notwithstanding—is still wanting in *general* knowledge, solid science, and rational philosophy. That—though a superior woman may possess brilliant *parts* or *single* faculties in equal perfection, yet there is a juster *proportion* in the mind of a superior man. What woman possesses not in equal measure the faculty of composing, combining, analyzing, and expanding her ideas? Is not this deficiency to be chiefly imputed to her desultory education, and puerile occupations? But the inquiry *here* to be made, is whether this deficiency has any injurious influence on general education, and hence on society.

I pass by the unpleasant effects of this discouragement of faculties or her own peculiar interest and happiness, in not fitting her, by a better improved taste, a more general, refined and methodical education, for her retired situation, to which the pursuits of literature seem so peculiarly suitable; and her exemption from many of the busy, perplexing, anxious cares of life, with which the more public life of man is often so much annoyed; nor shall I touch on the misery of not affording her by literature, an independent exhaustless source of self-enjoyment, inducing love of *home*, and precluding a taste for the more violent, and destructive pleasures of sense and fashion; with this whole train of passions, vanity, pride, envy, jealousy, and childish competition; nor hint of the feeling demand for such independence in her frequent—and increasingly frequent state of *celibacy*, and consequent 'solitude, and desolate old age.' (I do not believe woman is left single because gentlemen dread a literary woman; but she is rather driven to that resort, because left in celibacy.) 'What a fund of energy, cheerfulness, tranquillity, and contentment is necessary for those who hope to live comfortably by them!' But I agreed to pass all these considerations, and look only to those that equally interest both sexes. And since on the management of the *child* depends the character of the *man*, and since this is the universally assigned province of woman, it follows that by her is formed the permanent, influential, moral, and mental character of mankind. To her, then, the errors and prejudices of which the philosopher complains, are to be imputed. That man, having acquired this knowledge, should remain inattentive to a fountain whence flow streams so copious, numerous, and deleterious, is sufficient proof of the

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permanence of these influences; by his continuing to tread any customary beaten track, regardless whether a different path might not lead to a far more desirable country. Alas! to seek that other, would ask 'a vigour of intellect able to *contest* the empire of habit, and to look into one's own principles, and to examine the nature and source of his opinions.'

That mankind usually imbibe this *permanent* principle or decisive *tone* peculiarly from that of the *mother*, whether that be attuned to justice, tenderness, candour, frankness, and honour; or to selfishness, cruelty, cunning, envy, and meanness, a very superficial glance over the families of one's acquaintance will easily convince. I ask, then, whether it would not be better for society at large, instead of providing that one or two sons, of the more privileged families may be sent to college, vainly endeavouring to ingraft a classic taste or tone of honourable feeling, on the crabbed stock implanted by paternal ignorance, to impart to the mother herself a modicum of that good seed, which shall eventually bring forth a hundred fold, through each of her children, in place of the *one* sent to college to acquire just enough of refinement in taste to despise the others?

What is the proper object, or what the general uses of learning?—For *learning* seems the chief object of regard in the discussions and comments on our systems of education. Has not the necessity of learning, in this country, been too generally considered as confined to the administration of affairs of state, and to the discharge of the (thence termed) *learned* professions? and its *pleasures* supposed to be suited only to men in the higher stations of life, of consequence, men of leisure? Of course, it could in no respect be suited to the wants of busy, trifling, 'non-idea'd woman!' a *being* designed, and fitted to fill a sphere infinitely too circumscribed to ask the omnipotent aid of intellect. Woman, it is granted, requires not the knowledge of the Latin, because she is to describe diseases, or to mix medicines; nor that of the Greek for the more ready expression of the technicals of science and arts. But would it not be well that she understood so much of language, mathematics, natural, moral, and mental philosophy, as might enable her to perceive the nature of things, the tendency of principles, the connexion of cause and effects, as might direct her own conduct in the management of her children and household, in the manner calculated to produce the greatest good to themselves, and to society? For these attainments, are not endowments of a higher character demanded than even for the adjustment of laws, and admin-

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istration of state affairs? And that, not alone because the business of the public is conducted on *general* principles, regulated by fixed laws, in which the minutiæ of individual character and interest have no consideration, while the offices of a mistress of a family are complicated and varied by the individual situation, tempers, conduct, and claims of each member, every hour of the day, and where consequently the demand on the unaided judgment, quickness of observation, promptness in decision and execution, in the acting agent, must be proportionably greater; but also because the permanent influence of *her* administration must eventually extend and be *felt* through every part of the other! Is not the *habit* of close study particularly useful for disciplining the mind, and enabling it to bring its various powers to act on any incidental subject? Has woman no use for such ability in forming and regulating the varied tempers, appetites, and passions of children and domestics, and for acquiring a decision and firmness, in the discharge of duties that often run counter to her feelings? She is required to be ever amiable—is not a little philosophy requisite to enable her to bear with equanimity the infinity of trials, vexations, contradictions, and coercions of every day life?

Much, it has been admitted, has been already done for her improvement. Of the character of female seminaries, female studies and pursuits, I say nothing; if any one be ignorant of them, let him look into any one of the multitude of periodical papers, professedly published for her.—'*Ladies' Albums*,' '*Ladies' Magazines*,' '*Ladies' Miscellanies*,' or any thing of the whole encyclopedia of *Ladies'* Literature, and he will learn much more than a sensible man would wish to know.

But suppose the higher order of female seminaries to be of the very noblest stamp, pupils are not generally put into them sufficiently early, or kept there sufficiently late to form a character. It is time, however, to inquire whether any amendment be *practicable*. An institution forming a counterpart to our collegiate seminaries would not meet the demand. We want an establishment so diversified and extended, that the whole mental and moral character of youth may be there formed. Where the advantages of a private family, a Greek nursery, and an American college may be united: one that shall embrace children of every age, from infancy to the time of entering on active life, and dispensing the knowledge acquired. For it is *knowledge* rather than learning, with which we would have woman endowed. No seminary can in a few years, or perhaps months, com-

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municate much general knowledge, while the home preparation is so erroneous and deficient. Children live at home in absolute idleness, or in indulgence of that frolicksome buoyancy of spirit so natural and necessary to young animals on every animating object that falls in their way, but then are sent to school to be chained to the form, for hours together, and this native buoyancy being suppressed by force of hickory, they are kept poring over lessons of abstract *words*, not one in ten of which is to them the sign of any idea.

When a child is compelled to quit riding a stick, or driving a dog, some other not unnatural occupation should be provided, on which this vivacity may be usefully expended, which cannot be suppressed without great injury, not merely to health, but to the development of intellect. This primary season is most naturally and profitably devoted to observation and investigation of material things. With a sensible well informed mother, able to illustrate the simple principles and operations of nature and art, a child might acquire the leading principles of natural and mechanical philosophy, without any constraint, in those early years that are much worse than wasted in the drowsy exercises of school.

Can there not be established an institution consisting of several departments, embracing several buildings, with large yards, gardens, orchards, &c., within which may be collected the *materials*, that are to constitute the primary books and apparatus for instruction. In the gardens, flowers, fruits, and vegetables may be cultivated for use, at the same time that their nature, character, and properties may be acquired much more effectually than in books. Botany and horticulture thus learned together—with the several ingredients of the soil; while the thousands of grubs and insects that are often objects of disgust or horror to the child, or the victims cruel sport, become subjects of pleasant and useful instruction. If, while children are thoughtlessly pursuing every beautiful insect or little animal, or torturing it out of existence, the instructer were able to seize the incident to ingraft useful principles, by placing a microscope before it to display its curious form and structure, and by pointing out its properties, mode of life, weapons of defence, &c., what a spirit of curiosity for the charming works of nature would be inspired; and tenderness of disposition, and capacity for happiness established in the child. Many fowls and other small animals might also be kept to assist in affording active employment, amusement, and instruction. A taste for natural science, by these early habits of observation,

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with a tolerable acquaintance with many important principles may be thus acquired in hours of relaxation from more intense study. The earliest books put into the hands of pupils should bear some relation to the same subject, that one article of knowledge may fairly introduce the next. The expense of a skilful botanical gardener may be nearly defrayed by the profits of his labour.

For assistance in arts, let shops be located in the premises, where each artist may exercise his own craft for his own benefit; required only to give instruction when needed, and liberally compensated for what he affords. Young persons will much more easily acquire a general knowledge and correct taste in the fine arts by observing a skilful artist displaying his own skill and genius, with appropriate illustrations and occasional lessons, than by much study and diligent practice, according to the ordinary methods of schools. Accomplished artists, of course, are not thus to be made; it is not necessary: 'It is rather a taste for the fine arts,—an ability to understand and relish them,—a faculty to read the expression, sentiment, and intellect displayed in a good painting or finished piece of sculpture,' that we wish to inspire in the female; not to make her an artist.

Similar increased facilities may be afforded in the study of the modern European languages,—at least in the French, by obtaining a respectable French family, with which pupils pursuing that language may board and study, and be compelled to *speak* the same language they read; and by conducting other branches of study pursued at the time in the same way, such as history, chemistry, &c., they would gain in two or three years, a familiarity with the tongue, now scarcely attainable in any school in the country. There is a peculiar advantage in pursuing a *new* study in an unknown tongue; since the time and repetition necessary for retaining the terms, fix also the ideas. Who forgets the fables and tales of his primary lessons in the Latin and Greek?

To fill the various departments of labour, literature, science, and arts, many officers and teachers will be demanded, who must be persons of good breeding, and some acquaintance with the world. A gentleman president to officiate as chaplain, and take the superintendence of the dead languages with mental and moral philosophy. A lady president to superintend general conduct, disposition of time, arrangement of studies, occupations, visits, company, &c. The number of assistants must depend on the number of classes, and variety of studies, &c. As this in-

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stitution is intended to fit *Ladies* for active life, and company as well as amusement is to constitute an important means of instruction, care must de taken in *locating*, as well as conducting the institution, so that it may ensure the advantage of good society ; by inducing people of respectability frequently to visit it, and occasionally to board there for some length of time ; affording not only instruction, by their manners and conversation, but emolument by their money. There is no source of instruction so natural, effectual, and delightful, as sensible, intelligent conversation. A separate department should be provided for such boarders, where ladies who wish to retire from the world and enjoy religious privileges, and intellectual society, may find, if they choose, a permanent retreat ; to which a charity establishment should be added, for the reception of females reduced from affluence ; many of whom having been well bred, would be able to fill very useful offices in the institution. Charities may in several ways be made to supply the necessitous. In the charity department a sort of hospital for the aged and infirm may be included ; where the pupils may receive some information in that capital female duty of nursing, and have additional exercise for the affections of charity, kindness, and commiseration.

I shall no further follow the current course of puffing the *moral* excellences of my favourite ; being convinced that the moral character, or rather conduct of youth, taken *en masse*, will be formed to the standard of that society in which they habitually move. Yet it is believed that the mode of conducting the understanding by natural gradations from sensible material things to abstract ideas, and directing the attention to the subject of pursuit, not to the fame to be gained by reciting long lessons, will, in a great measure, supersede the necessity of stimulating that baleful ambition, so courteously termed 'laudable emulation.' To that main spring and omnipotent engine of our common schools—and indeed of domestic discipline—is perhaps to be imputed most of that selfish human depravity—very conveniently denominated *native* ; and most inconsistently it is implanted by a set of beings professing a religion that requires love to another as to one's self—and that philosophy which professes to *do* to others what is *required* of them. The precept, indeed, is gravely taught, at the same time that the child is *habitually trained* to seek in all things his own *advancement*, even at the expense of much injustice, and depression of those in immediate connexion with him. Do not the cruel rites and absurd practices of the heathen rise, before conduct like this, into just con-

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sistency and moral purity? It is hoped that keeping children much with their superiors, as they will be *here*, by leaving generally, in study, work, or play, older persons with them,—emulation will be chiefly excited to reach to their superior attainments, and not to compete with compeers. This course of of pleasantly diverting attention from *self*, and occupying it on subjects, exciting only pleasant sensations, and stimulating lively but not wrong passions, is at least favourable to the reception of good feeling, correct principle, and virtuous conduct. And the habit of close observation, minute inventigation, and accurate description, will be found, I think to have no small influence in establishing a love of truth.

It being proposed to afford every sort of instruction in nature, arts, science, and language, it seems advisable that the studies should be so divided as to constitute several *degrees*, to each of which may be attached its appropriate diploma: One perhaps should be awarded to certain attainments in English studies only; another to the same, with the addition of the Latin language; another with that of French, &c. Fixing the length of time allotted to each, and the necessary preparatory time in the primary department. This will leave it in a measure, optional with the parent what studies his child shall pursue, and how long remain in the school, yet receiving the appropriate honour for the degree attained.*

There is a great want of object or *motive* to lead young ladies into intellectual pursuits, because they get no honour by them: if these could be rendered more honourable, their pursuit would, it might be hoped, induce genuine taste.

The quaint objection, that the culture of intellect disqualifies woman for domestic duty can surely never be urged against a style of education, planned with direct reference to those duties. But what must be thought of a course of duties that forbade the culture of the best and most noble faculties of any being? Is it not obvious that nothing but a system of tyranny and slavery could reduce an intelligent being to so degraded a state? Does not the God of nature by endowing woman with the godlike faculty of reason, show us that it should be improved to the utmost? This notion that woman is intended merely as a minister of sense, we know had its rise at a time and in a region

* May not undue ambition be excited in this way, and evils little short of those arising from emulation be a necessary consequence? Emulation is apt to give rise to *envy*; and ambition, stimulated as above, may produce *pride*. —Ed.

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when she was held a lawful slave, and is probably kept up by the consequent circumstance that we have yet few females of really extensive knowledge and solid science; hence the few who are able to *rattle* the technicals and literature, are contemptuously styled *learned women*, blue stockings, &c.; and hence it happens that they themselves 'affect a contempt for those earth-born gnomes yclept household cares,' and assume a superiority to the rest of their sex that is granted by none. But these are not the airs or the language of classic taste. A woman of a really refined mind must experience in her own breast a sensation very remote from ostentatious display. Besides, to be instructed first by examination of *things*, running gradually into abstract *principles*, acquiring the *language* of a science or art no faster than its principles are developed, and showing how little is actually known, prevents the ability as well as disposition to *prate* upon a subject not understood. And the volume of *nature* being laid open, and the pupil taught to understand her sublime language, the artificial technicals of science lose much of their pompous dignity in the eyes of the student. 'When hard names are known to stand for common things, they cease to be hard.' Nature was antecedent to art, and human art is found beneficial in proportion as it enables us to understand and apply her principles.

It is evidently only on a large scale that so many facilities can be brought together, and no method appears of accomplishing such an end, but by effecting a combination of the friends of literature, of the female sex, and indeed of mankind; by which their several energies can be so concentrated as to act in unison. A few such friends forming themselves into a society and inviting the cooperation of others through the country, would be equal to the commencement of an institution, that may serve as an example and encouragement in pursuit of a course which may eventually produce a real renovation in our systems of public and private instruction. It would certainly demand ample funds; yet by no means proportionate to the advantages afforded compare with present literary institutions. I have hinted at several means and might suggest many more by which much of the ordinary college expenses might be avoided. Several of their professorships might be wholly dispensed with, some others rendered nearly nominal, many of the services performed by females; every way expense curtailed. Is not the cause worthy of some sacrifice, and some exertions? Shall woman's supreme excellence be found in beauty, figure, voice, or gesture? or shall her skill and taste in spreading the table constitute

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the *ne plus ultra* of worth and grace? I would *not* that she should assume the van, or come into competition with her natural lord. 'Though the increased liberality of opinion permits her now to display acquirements that would formerly have been ridiculous; yet it is better for her to consider science rather as the mirror of Juno, by which she attired herself *for Jove*, than as the lambent flame that played about the head of Julus distinguishing him from his companions.' In short, let her be considered and educated so as to become the solid, rational, as well as beautiful half of the human species; that she may be, not only in culinary excellence, but in mental aid and grace, 'an *help fit* for man.'

PRACTICAL VIEWS OF EDUCATION.

[Amid the different opinions held by teachers, as to the correctness of certain theories of education and the advantages of new methods of instruction, much progress seems to be made in substantial and unquestionable improvements of a practical nature. Of these we estimate very highly all measures taken for ensuring or facilitating the enjoyment of health during the period of school education. In the city of Boston, especially, there has been much need of a seminary which might furnish a fair example of what a school ought to be in regard to the comfort and convenience of pupils, and the opportunity afforded to the teacher for giving every lesson to the best advantage. Spacious, and pleasant accommodations, are important not only in relation to health and cheerfulness, but to intellectual and moral improvement; and suitable apartments and furniture, though very generally overlooked, are as essential to the teacher and his scholars as to people engaged in any other business whatever.*

The school at the opening of which the following address was delivered, though it owes its origin and completion to the enterprise and spirit of an individual, will prove, we think, a public benefit, as a model for the construction and arrangement of school-rooms. The existence of the fine building in Chauncy Place, is itself a striking evidence of the readiness of the community to extend a liberal patronage to private education, not-

* We cannot avoid mentioning here, as a fine specimen of arrangements for a female school, the rooms and furniture of the present seminary of Mr. Bailey, formerly master of the High School for Girls.—Ed.

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withstanding the number and the excellence of our public schools; and we entertain no doubt that the individual who in this instance has laid both parents and pupils under such obligations, will be amply compensated for his generous efforts.*

The new school commends itself to notice, not only by the superior plan of its structure and by the past success of the principal, but by the peculiar facilities which it affords for an equal and thorough progress in the various branches of instruction. By adopting the principle of the division of labour and committing distinct departments to the care of each instructer, the best opportunities are furnished both for teaching and learning; while the constant superintendence of the principal ensures the benefit of a steady and uniform management—a point of great consequence to the moral as well as intellectual progress of the young.

The following address touches on several topics of great interest to teachers and parents, and under this impression we have solicited the author's permission to copy it. The opinions expressed by Mr. Thayer on the subject of discipline are worthy of attentive consideration by those who think corporal pain should *never* be resorted to as an expedient in the government of the young. On this point the address speaks the language, we believe, of most teachers who have the charge of numerous schools, and who consequently must sometimes have to manage dispositions lamentably neglected if not perverted. To dispense, as far possible, with personal chastisement, is the duty and the pleasure of every teacher whose mind is actuated either by the natural promptings of feeling or the enlightened dictates of principle; and every such instructer has, we believe, the energy and the perseverance requisite to govern his school habitually by generous and noble motives. To every general rule, however, we are accustomed to admit exceptions; and in this case these will be found in scholars who enter a school with their temper and conduct formed on low principles, and corrupted by a passionate and irregular government. Pupils of such a character cannot be expected to become free and pure moral agents in a day. The teacher must commence at the actual stage of the scholar's character, and rectify his mind, and purify his motives, as fast as he can. But precipitate haste, or inconsiderate indulgence, or stipulated lenity at the outset, throws off the pu-

* Mr. G. F. Thayer, a notice of whose school, as formerly conducted, may be found in an early No. of the Journal.—Ed.

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pil's sense of responsibility, and gives free scope to his faults, by taking away from them the only consequence which he has been accustomed to feel and recognize as punishment. Another class of scholars unfortunately exists, who, from various circumstances, are so obtuse in feeling, that they are regardless of mental punishments; and the necessity of maintaining an entire control of his school, will, in such instances also, compel the master to vary from his general course and adapt his government to the disposition of the individual.

It is, perhaps, one the evils of our day, that even our intellectual speculations are made subjects of party feeling, and that we so commonly act from belief in a theory, rather than under the influence of deliberate personal conviction. This hindrance to actual improvement is peculiarly felt in questions relating to education, and in none more so than in that of discipline. We are glad, therefore, to observe that, while the author of this address goes willingly along with the advocates of mild and gentle methods to a certain point, he stops where experience and observation have convinced him it is unsafe to go farther.

Another topic of this address, and one not merely of local importance, is, the transferring of boys, at a premature age, from their 'English' schools, to those at which they commence their classical education. In all cases, we believe, this is very bad policy on the part of the parent, and it leads to many disadvantageous results on the part of the scholar; filling up preparatory schools and colleges with pupils too young to receive the benefits intended by classical studies, and shamefully deficient, perhaps, in the very elements of education—writing, for instance, a miserable hand, spelling and pointing very inaccurately, violating in not a few of their 'exercises,' the common rules of grammar, and declaiming in the tones of the mock-heroic. This is not said by way of disparagement. No person is accountable for the want of what he has never had opportunity to acquire. The mistake and the omission, though perhaps too often winked at by the teacher, are chargeable on the parent.

Our readers will no doubt be gratified with the prominent place given in this address to the subject of moral education. It is pleasing to observe teachers endeavouring to act fully up to the spirit and design of their office—that of taking a parent's care of the young; not stopping short at the bare information requisite for the communication of knowledge, but judiciously calling forth the powers of the mind on the greatest of all its objects of attention—its own moral improvement, and thus early inspiring

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it with the conscious strength and happiness of rectitude, the only sound and natural foundation of mental character.]

Address delivered at the opening of Chauncy Hall, on Monday, Aug. 18th, 1828.

On entering upon the occupation of this house—a house devoted to the great purposes of education—I have thought it not improper to solicit the presence of my patrons, and others interested in this important object, before whom I might develope, as briefly as possible, my own views in relation to it, along with an outline of the course which I intend to pursue. This will be done in the most simple and familiar language, as best suited to the understanding of the youthful portion of my audience.

Realizing the force of external influences on the young, I have selected for the site of this edifice, a spot which I regard as possessing peculiar advantages over any other procurable situation in the city. In front, a spacious unpaved court, conveniently accessible on foot or by any vehicle in the rear, extensive gardens, breathing fragrance in the seasons of flowers and fruits, and pure air at all times; on the one side, a church, rarely ocupied during school hours—separated from us by a large enclosure; and on the other, a little removed, the dwelling of a most respectable citizen. Thus, every aspect is favourable to our wishes. We have air and light from every quarter, and silence, unbroken by the profaneness or noisy mirth of the idle vagrant, or the more tolerable but still annoying thunder of the loaded team, or the rattling of coaches over the deafning pavement; no mechanics, workshops to disturb us by their din, or induce the pupil to linger from his post at school; no hovels of squalid poverty, where ignorance or vice or ill manners might pollute by their example; but within the reach of the eye, on every hand, all is reputable, pleasing, heathful—producing a union of good influences, which will not only tend to cheer us in our course of moral instruction, but positively to cooperate with us in the good work.

The arrangement of our school grounds, too, has been made with a special view to the same end; and great care will be taken, that, while pure principles are inculcated within the house, they shall be practised without. Thus, the mental health of our pupils has been consulted, while the physical has not been forgotten. For, as they, in a degree, operate reciprocally, it

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would be injurious to neglect either. Hence, the apartments have been made spacious and airy, a liberal portion of room allowed to each pupil while in school, and, by the peculiar construction of the foundation of the building, a larger play ground afforded, than is usually accessible in a city—enabling us to keep our children within our own limits, neither exposed to dangers from the street, nor exposing the neighbours to annoyance from their plays.

I have given to the building, the name of Chauncy Hall, considering the title appropriate on many accounts, beside being willing to bear this testimony of my respect to the memory of that ardent patriot, liberal christian, and excellent man—Dr. Charles Chauncy.

Thus much I have thought it necessary to say of the house, because I know on that this the effect of instruction depends, more than is generally supposed. We learn from all around us. Every object is making some impression. And the ductile mind of childhood and youth is not only more susceptible than that of advanced life, but its impressions are more durable. How important, then, that the most auspicious influences be employed!

The undertaking has been a highly expensive one; and I look, with confidence, to my friends, that it shall not prove an *unfortunate* one. With *confidence*, I say, because their kindness and candour have been so liberally extended to me hitherto, when the accommodations for pupils and means of teaching well were so inferior, that it would be ungrateful to doubt *here*, where every thing is adapted to our wishes, for the promotion of these objects.

The course of instruction will embrace all branches usually taught in good English schools; to which will be added the ancient and modern languages. The best of masters will be employed; so that, if possible, this school shall have no superior about us. I am very far from flattering myself that this is *now* the case, but exertion shall never flag until that eminence be attained.

In pursuance of this determination, but a small portion of the actual teaching, will be done by the principal personally; as he believes more may be accomplished by a judicious division of the labour,—each individual undertaking that in which he is most expert, while a rigid supervision of the whole shall be maintained by himself,—than by any other plan that can be devised.

Some new studies will be introduced—particularly that of the Spanish language—and, perhaps, mineralogy and astronomy.

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It has also been to me an object of long cherished desire, to make Drawing a common exercise in our school; and I do not despair of accomplishing it, although I have hitherto been unsuccessful in my efforts to obtain a good teacher. Drawing—more than any other study—should be correctly and skilfully taught, or not taught at all. But how frequently is it attempted by persons destitute of science, taste, or judgement! It is, in my estimation, not an accomplishment merely, but an art almost as useful as writing itself not: to the painter—not to the lover of nature only, but to the artificer, to the scholar, the navigator, the man of leisure—nay, to almost every profession of life. And how awkward does one frequently feel, from the want of an acquaintance with it! It is of such every day utility, that I am surprised at the general neglect of it in our country.

I am not able, at present, to promise the introduction of all these studies, but shall keep them constantly in view, waiting only for a favourable coincidence of circumstances, to add them to those already attended to.

As the Boston private schools for boys, are now supported, it would be difficult for the teachers to extend the advantages of these branches to any considerable number of pupils—owing to the early age at which they are usually transferred to the public Latin school; which has generally been, as soon as they began to understand and relish English studies, and before they could have made such advances in them, as to cause their impression to be permanent, amidst the hard labour of classical lessons.

Thus it is not merely that they lose the benefit of useful and interesting studies which might be added to the elements, but they actually forget much of the little they had before acquired. It would, in my view, be an incalculable advantage to the community, were the age of admission to that excellent school, fixed at two years later than it now is. A far better preparation for its requisitions could thus be made; the mind would have become stronger; the languages would be more highly enjoyed; and more rapid advances, consequently made; less subsequent private instruction in English, would be required, during hours that should be devoted to exercise, interesting reading, or relaxtion; students would enter college at a more suitable age, and many an invaluable life would be redeemed to the world, which now becomes a victim to the intense application of professional study, before the physical powers have attained to sufficient maturity to endure the labour.

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Am I suspected of *interested* motives in these remarks? I *am* interested, as every patriot and every philanthropist ought to be on this subject—for my country, that it be not inconsiderately despoiled of its most valuable jewels; for the world, that its benefactors be not sacrificed on the altar of a hot-bed precocity! We are too impatient with our children. We do not imitate nature in her course—which allows a proper season, to ripen her fruits and bring forth her rich harvest. We do not consider that whatever is valuable requires time to develope and mature it.

I grant, that I am interested further; that I am myself ambitious to make more thorough scholars, before they are offered to another institution; that I much prefer pupils who have been *long* under my care, to beginners, as they cause much less labour, and are a credit the school, besides being valuable in their influence upon new scholars, who have generally some bad habits in their primary education, or in their morals or manners, to correct.—We love to enjoy, for a little time, the fruits of our exertions and cares; while, it must be confessed, small is the personal encouragement, beyond a sense of duty, to be teaching the rudiments perpetually, to an ever changing class of the youngest children—to have the instructers of higher schools reap the laurels that are properly due to earlier efforts—to have these interesting little objects removed to other seminaries when they have wound themselves about our hearts, and we have begun to trace and to admire the development of principle, of intellect, of genius,—have just begun to drink of the vine of our own planting; to enjoy the germinations of the moral scions of our own ingrafting;—to have the children themselves too, *forget* perhaps, those who may have been so happy as to root, still more deeply, in their hearts, the ever valuable counsels of maternal solicitude and affection.

The teacher who loves his profession, cannot but love the objects of his daily care; and, in addition to the considerations that, this is 'the means whereby he lives,'—the reputation of his school, his desire for fame, and his love of ease, so much promoted by a long continuance of the same pupils,—he cannot, under any circumstance but that of conviction of increased advantage to the child, witness with complacency the transfer to another institution, of one whose deportment has rendered him respected, whose studious habits have presented a promise of future greatness, or whose kindness has made him a peculiar object of affection. If, however, he have made a thorough pre-

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paration for higher departments, and those whose right it is to direct his course without taking counsel of any one, have resolved on a change, the teacher submits—as is his duty—in silence. But if, on the other hand, he knows,—as know he should—that the child, though he might pass an examination, at the other school, *ought not to go*, that his time, for a while, would be much better employed on his English studies; ought he not, as an acknowledged guardian of the minds of the young, to state it distinctly and explicitly to the parent—regardless of the *motive* to which it might be attributed? Perhaps I am wrong in this appeal. But, I may be allowed to add, that if the teacher be worthy of his office, he must know better, what is the preferable course in education—being previously apprized of the destiny of the child in his charge—than the best and most enlightened of men, so engrossed by the affairs of commerce, or a profession, or public duties, as to have little or no time time for the instruction of their children, or even for an examination into the nature, quality, or extent of their acquisitions.

It is hoped, that this will not be considered by any one, as an unwarrantable assumption; for nothing, in the remotest degree *personal* has been intended by it; but merely a statement of a very obvious truism—that a man is best acquainted with *his own* trade.

I, with great pleasure, take this public opportunity to say, that several of my highly respected friends have submitted this question entirely to my judgment; and I humbly trust, that the decision has been perfectly satisfactory to their minds. It has been made, I can assure them, with a single eye to the benefit of the children, and an independence which the cases required. In this connexion I wish to remark, that in some instances, even where no disaffection has existed, children have been removed *to other* schools, without a single day's previous notice; and without any communication whatever, from the parent to the teacher. The cases have been rare, it is true; and I cannot but hope, *none* will ever occur in this place. It is but civil, that a note or a call from a father should apprize the teacher of any contemplated change. If he have been faithful to his trust, he is entitled to it; and in any case, it is but right that he should know the *cause* of the removal. The common courtesy of ordinary intercourse demands it; and where the subject concerns so nearly the well-being of a child, how much more necessary it becomes! An interview at such a time, would often discover facts in relation to the child, that would materially affect the course to be adopt-

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ed with him. Moreover, it is a measure of great expediency; for I have known a boy to have been six months away from a school, before his father was aware that he had left it at all—and then to discover it by an incidental call on the master.

I have therefore thought it necessary to state, that a child will be considered a member of the school, until I shall have *personal* information from the *parent*, that he has been withdrawn.

It would be gratifying to me to have a month's notice of any contemplated change, as I should thereby be enabled to accommodate my arrangements to the circumstance.*

The discipline of the school will be *paternal;* but not perhaps in the sense of that word, as many of the present day understand it, to wit,—all gentleness and persuasion: enduring all the freaks, the mischiefs, the follies, the disobedience of boyhood, from the consideration that 'it will not do to cross the child,' or in the expectation that he may be *reasoned* right, or that his good feelings, as he grows to maturity, will triumph over frowardness unchecked in boyhood; administering no correction because it is '*unfit for a human being*,' and should be inflicted only on the *brute*, or because *it will break down his spirit, and induce a mean, servile state of mind.* This is not a necessary consequence. I appeal to history, and, as far as we have any information, the habits of the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries,—periods that gave to the world, the illustrious names of Bacon, Shakspeare, Milton, Dryden, Locke, Newton, Clarke, Johnson, and a multitude of others, who stood forth in all the glory of intellectual brightness,—they were remarkable for the rigour of their early discipline. And we have reason to believe that the minds of the majority of these lights of science, these eminent poets, and distinguished philosophers, received their rich cultivation under '*the birch.*' Yet it did not prevent them from aspiring after, and attaining to, a point beyond which the human intellect never ranged; it did not debase them: they walked as erect among their fellow men, as the proudest of their species. Nor could they probably have been *more* useful to the world, under any system that human ingenuity could devise.

* These are not mere matters of courtesy; they are of great moment to the parent and the child; and justice to the teacher would require a much stricter observance of them than is common. This subject is but one of the minor topics of the address, and at first we intended to omit it. On second thoughts, however, the importance of this point, which is too seldom mentioned by teachers, induced us to retain the passage.—Ed.

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Let us now look at our own countrymen, educated under the iron discipline of our puritanical fathers, whose rigid severity held the young in almost breathless silence, in the presence of their teachers, and under whose stern government children dared not speak aloud in the presence of their sires. Do we find *them* mean spirited? Was their moral or physical courage easily daunted? Were they not capable of performing as much, of enduring hardships as severe, from the first settlement of the country to its Independence, as ever trod the earth? Contemplate the history of the characters of those who figured in our Revolution, who achieved our freedom! Was there any thing servile or unmanly in their atmosphere? Do we find it in their councils? In their addresses to the British monarch? Was there any thing humiliating, any thing of *fear*, in the tone with which they vindicated their rights, as men, and urged their cause as free citizens?

In Great Britain, down to a very late period, the same sort of discipline has been maintained in her schools; nor do we find that the melioration of modern days has accelerated the march of mind, or, on the whole, rendered the human race more happy. Still, I would not be understood as advocating the use of the rod to the extent of former days. Far be it from me to do so. I contend only for its occasional utility, and for its perfect harmlessness to the spirit and moral courage. I most freely admit, that great improvements have been made in the art of managing the young. A kinder and more generous system has been adopted,—a system, which, I am happy, under some restrictions, to pursue myself. But there is danger of going too far, and, under the apprehension of debasing the spirit of our children, rendering them effeminate, puerile, and superficial.

I would not fritter away a necessary and manly fortitude in our children, by excessive indulgence or squeamish fastidiousness. They are not in danger in the hands of the *discreet:* let not the rash and inconsiderate be trusted. But still let rewards and punishments both be judiciously dispensed.

There is a natural inclination to indolence in the young, in regard to school duties; and where one individual is found who goes cheerfully to them, a hundred require a vast deal of urging and compulsion. Much is effected by stimulants and persuasion, and affectionate appeals; but these will not do alone. In time they lose their exciting power. There must be something to dread—something beside the displeasure of those they love, a little confinement, or trifling privation: it must be something

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positive, something that will pain the animal, as well as the intellectual man. This, by being held in reserve for uncommon exigencies, has an effect, that, with many, nothing else can have. It is not (I repeat it)necessary to have recourse to it frequently. To this I should decidedly object, but would keep it, as we do medicine, not for habitual use, but to be resorted to, only as the system demands it, when regimen and abstinence have proved *their* impotency, and something more effectual is required. To many it would probably never be applied. In the variety of dispositions in a large school, there are those for whom a severe look would be punishment enough—whom the lifted finger would reduce to perfect and lasting order. But there are also those to whom, unfortunately, a harsher specific must sometimes be administered; on whose ear, the voice of warning and admonition at length falls powerless—who can be moved by no considerations of duty, interest, present or future rewards; nor roused to exertion by ambition, honour, or affection. But obedience and correct deportment must be enforced. When gentle means suffice, so much the happier for the teacher as well as for the pupil. The most irksome of a teacher's duty is that of punishment; and perhaps it could as ill be neglected as the most agreeable. Personal infliction should not be applied until all milder measures fail; but *then* should not be withheld. For myself, however, I would not retain as a pupil, one, who should require any *frequency* of this mode of punishment; but, after suitable experiment, would dismiss him from the school—believing that the influence on the other pupils would be such as to demand it of me, as a matter of duty, not less than of expediency. I intend, moreover, that *this hall* shall never be the scene of corporal chastisement, nor any pupil ever witness another's shame, under such disgrace. But should it, unhappily, ever be necessary to administer it, it shall be done in private, between the offender and me alone. Nor shall this or any other punishment be exercised by me, without first convincing the accused of its perfect justice—unless, which perhaps would never happen, an apparent and unyielding obstinacy should strive to take advantage of this rule, for its own relief, against the fullest and clearest conviction of guilt. Whatever may be previously done to induce the pupil to govern himself, to teach him the unruly nature of his passions, and the ascendant power of the mind, when properly cultivated—its noble energies, its mighty capacities, its probable destiny—I should never neglect, but endeavour to turn to the best account. These very steps would have a tendency

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to convince the offender, both of the *necessity* and the *propriety*, of the punishment.

So much of the modern mode I admire. So much it has been my aim to practise; and I have found high satisfaction in the results. As *amendment* is the only proper end of punishment, whatever presents a different aspect, or is inflicted from other considerations, is no longer *correction*, but *revenge*. And as we are the friends of our pupils, and, in our office, *in the place of fathers*, we have no *passion* to gratify, but simply a wish to make our children better.

Thus it is, that the government of the school, is *paternal*; and as the same methods will be adopted towards all, as towards my own son, I may be allowed so to denominate it. Happy shall I be, if, in this free disclosure of my own views, I shall be met and supported by my friends.

I have the satisfaction to believe, that no equal number of boys, in any school, can be found, among whom a higher sense of moral propriety prevails, than in this. To eradicate every fault, to keep their minds pure, has been our greatest effort. How far we have been successful, cannot be *known*, as it is impossible to say, what would have been the result of neglect or indifference in this department. We are, however, encouraged, by our own convictions of its utility, as well as by the kind assurances of several of our esteemed patrons, to persevere in the course of *moral* instruction, which forms a part of every day's exercises: in which, the first great principle inculcated, is *the love of truth*. On this foundation we endeavour to erect, and we believe we *can* erect, the superstructure of *real* honour, magnanimity, and every ennobling virtue; striving to impress upon the young mind, the great and true doctrine, that *our own happiness is best promoted by labouring for the happiness of our fellow creatures*; believing that we cannot render a more acceptable service to Him who 'looketh on the heart,' than by infusing this spirit of universal benevolence into the youthful breast;—and confidently trusting, that they who fill up the measure of duty towards those about them, cannot fail in their duty to Him, to whom they are indebted for life, and health, and all they enjoy now, and all they hope for hereafter.

While I have no complaint to make of any want of attention or respect, from either my pupils or their parents, I would remark, that the influence of a teacher with those under his care, must ever be in proportion to the degree of deference, with which he or his directions, opinions, &c., are regarded and

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spoken of, in the presence of children at home. They need no other cue. Their manners in school, will exhibit, in the most intelligible language, the estimation in which their teachers are held and spoken of in the family circle. The most beneficial aid, therefore, that a parent can render to the instructer of his child, is to inculcate the idea—not by direct eulogium, but by the incidental remarks made before him—that the teacher has his *fullest confidence.* This will serve as a cooperation more useful than a thousand set lectures on the subject, and will carry the master's opinions and requisitions to the mind of the scholar, with their full weight—with a weight that nothing else can give them. Whereas, if the idea is entertained, that his decisions can be appealed from, with any hope of success, his usefulness will be nearly at an end:—small indeed will be the advantage he can render to your child.

The first step of a judicious teacher, is, to gain the confidence and affection of his pupil. And, as the young are naturally confiding and affectionate, he will soon accomplish it, if no extraneous influence intervene to counteract his efforts. This done, the child is prepared to receive instruction with satisfaction and pleasure. He respects the source of it—his mind has no doubts to struggle with ; and he learns to love the sciences as he loves the man who teaches them. In this state of things, the instructer can almost mould him to his will, and make such impressions on his mind and heart as will never be forgotten.

In committing the minds of our children to the care of others, we entrust them with a most precious charge—not merely so, as far as their well-being, their respectability, and usefulness are concerned in the *present* existence, but to all future being ; for as mind is immortal, its acquisitions will be so likewise ; and if happiness is to be enjoyed in proportion to mental elevation and refinement, as well as to *moral* purity, it is of unspeakable importance to us all to cultivate it. The teacher, then, whose office it is to direct his pupil to the *sacred* duties of life, incurs an immense responsibility, and may well claim, and hope to receive, all the aid that parental cooperation can give. With this aid, he may not only be the happy means of forming good citizens, but exert an influence which shall bears its fruits in heaven.

That this cooperation may become more certain and complete, and a good understanding be maintained between the parents or guardians and the teacher, I propose giving the whole of the first day of every quarter to the reception of visits from

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parents, &c.—when the progress of the children can be discussed, their defects pointed out, the peculiarities of their dispositions more fully learned; by which the teacher may be able more effectually to apply his instructions—and any change in studies, &c., suggested, that cases may require. A room has been fitted up almost solely for this purpose, and parents and others are respectfully invited to call.

Boys, Thus far my observations have been addressed principally to your parents and friends. I must not overlook *you*. I *always* remember you—always feel an ardent desire for your improvement, welfare, and happiness. Even in those moments when, in your immature judgments, I have been severe with you—even then, have I been, perhaps, more than ever, your friend. And those moments, boys, will come up, hereafter, to your remembrance, when experience shall have *ripened* your judgment, as valuable points in your life, from which you can date some folly abandoned—some good resolution made—some bad habit overcome—some passion, which had checked your onward course in virtue, conquered. You will then know how to estimate the labours of those whose daily portion is care, confinement, and exhaustion—whose heads, in the summer of life, are bleached by anxiety, and whose cheeks often bear the impress of consumption's withering touch.

It is not usual, at your age, to be actuated by considerations of this nature; but there are those of you who think so serious of such things, among whom are found the most promising scholars—scholars, who, at no distant day, will be filling the most honorable situations in society. They not only think right, but *act right*—and the more their examples are imitated by others of you, the happier will you be at school, the more useful as you grow to manhood, and the more tranquil in the hour of death.

Go on, then, striving against every improper feeling, propensity, principle, temptation, and example—and take for your guide whatever is pure, holy, and of good report, and your reward will be sure.

Those of you who are about to leave this, for the Latin and other schools, will take my blessing along with you. You have shared with your school-fellows in the moral, as well as the intellectual instruction which has been liberally bestowed by your several teachers, so requisite to fit you, with credit, for the stations for which you intend to apply; and I have great pleasure in stating, that the most of you are well prepared, both to enter

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the schools for which you are designed, and to enjoy the society of good, honourable, and high-minded boys. To such of you I would say, persevere in the path of excellence which you have chosen—forget not the pure principles, the noble motives which you have here been told to cherish—be perfectly obedient and respectful to your new teachers—punctual in your attendance at school, and studious at all times when required—and you will not fail to gain the affection of your new, as you have gained that of your present teachers, beside securing the numerous advantages which arise from duty faithfully performed.

If there are any among you, who feel conscious that you do not deserve this praise, and who, now that we are soon to part, remember any pain, unnecessary labour, anxiety, or frequent reproof you may have cost your teachers,—make a solemn resolution to amend. Entering a new school will afford a very appropriate occasion for the establishment of a new and more worthy character. Follow the example of those among your fellows, who have made the most progress in their studies—for you will generall find them to be the best boys. I forgive you all your remissnesses and faults, since you were first entrusted to me, and hope, that when you shall quit the schools you are soon to enter, you will do it with the well deserved praises of your teachers, and the silent, but still more satisfactory approbation, of your own hearts.

We now dedicate this building to the cause of good learning, pure morality, industrious habits, sincere piety, and all those kind affections of the soul, which elevate man to his proper rank in the scale of being, and fit him for the enjoyment of a perfect state of existence beyond the grave.

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REVIEW.

An Historical Map of Palestine, or the Holy Land: exhibiting a correct and masterly delineation of the peculiar Geographical features of the Country, and of all places therein; interspersed with more than two hundred Vignettes and Emblems, illustrative of interesting Events recorded in the Bible, introduced topographically from the best authorities. Originally delineated by J. T. Assheton, London. Now greatly improved, and furnished with a complete Geographical Index, showing the Situation, Latitude, and Longitude of every Place, and containing explanatory References to all the Vignettes, Emblems, &c.; a Sketch of the History and present state of the country and its principal districts and cities; a Calendar of Palestine, &c. &c. By Joseph W. Ingraham. Boston: Thomas B. Wait and Joseph W. Ingraham. 1828.

This map, though excellently adapted for general use, possesses a peculiar value as a vehicle of instruction in schools and other seminaries. Teachers have laboured, hitherto, under great disadvantages in attempting to impart to their pupils an accurate knowledge of sacred geography. The maps of Palestine in the best of atlases in common use, are very defective and unsatisfactory, and sometimes very inaccurate in the delineation of places, and even of extensive regions; as is well known to all instructers who have ever attempted to accompany their classes in minute and particular references to sacred geography, in the manner deemed indispensable in illustrating a course of profane history.

The peculiar irregularities and discrepances in the maps of the Holy Land, are, as most of our readers are aware, not to be ascribed to the ignorance or the carelessness of designers or engravers: they are chiefly owing to the mistakes and misrepresentations of travellers, more devout than enlightened, whose romantic credulity and limited knowledge rendered them peculiarly liable to error,—men whose researches seem to have been guided by a thirst for the emotions arising from a hallowed though perhaps fancied identity of certain spots, rather than a desire for accuracy in ascertaining facts or describing places. The mistakes alluded to, were greatly favoured by the very general ignorance prevailing in most countries respecting, the

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Holy Land. In the era of the crusades, the Europeans acquired, of course, a familiar acquaintance with the geography of Palestine; but when this faded away, as must always be the case with information which is merely oral and traditionary, the nations of Christendom, having no longer the excitement of war or of religious enthusiasm to direct their attention to that quarter, lost their interest in the details of its geography, except what was involved in the existing commerce with the East. No event of absorbing interest occurred to attract a general attention to that region of the world, till so lately as the invasion of Egypt by the French. The interval between the crusades, and the date of this event, passed over in silence, but for the occasional report or journal of an adventurer, whose pious curiosity had impelled him to trace the imagined impress of

those blessed feet,
Which, eighteen hundred years ago, were nailed,
For our advantage, to the bitter cross.

The passage of a caravan sometimes afforded opportunity for a detachment of pilgrims to pay their devotions at the holy sepulchre. But travellers such as these were seldom anxious to acquire or disseminate correct information, influenced as they were by superstition, and predisposed for the vague and the marvellous. It is not at all wonderful that erroneous and contradictory accounts of facts and places should thence be propagated, and cause confusion and misrepresentation in all attempts to delineate the surface of the country, and assign the localities of actions and events. Till within thirty years, little had been effected towards verifying or inves igating the accounts given by different authorities at distant intervals. But of late the enterprise of individuals, and the labours of the agents of philanthropic societies have brought to light a mass of authentic and valuable information relative to that interesting region, and thus have, for the first time, rendered it possible for men of industry and research to present a map of the Holy Land, which is fairly entitled to a confident reliance on its accuracy.

The difficulties of such an undertaking are thus expressed in the preface to the pamphlet which accompanies the map mentioned at the commencement of this article.

'This Publication has been long announced; but the undertaking has been attended with more difficulty than could possibly have been anticipated at the commencement. It was at first contemplated to republish the English edition, with no other alteration than the addition of the modern names of places which

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had become important from other events besides those recorded in the Holy Scriptures. But after much progress had been made in the engraving, it was found that the English edition contained many errors, and was very defective in the location of places situated within the limits of the country of which the Map professed to give a correct delineation. It was important, therefore, that these errors should be corrected, and the defects supplied. After the engraving had been very far advanced, a copy of the second English edition was received, which contained many of the corrections which had already been made, and others, of which advantage has since been taken. In making these corrections and additions, it was necessary carefully and frequently to consult various authorities; and to compare and reconcile their contradictory statements. In a large proportion of cases, two authorities were seldom found to agree. This fact was long ago commented on by Fuller,* who observes, "Of thirty maps and descriptions of the Holy Land, which I have perused, I never met with two in all considerables alike. Some sink valleys where others raise mountains; yea, end rivers, where others begin them; and sometimes, with a wanton dash of the pen, create a stream in land, and a creek in sea, more than nature ever owned." This diversity is a source of great inconvenience: but few individuals, indeed, can be aware of the perplexity which it sometimes occasions. One map designates a place as in the north part of Palestine, while another places it in the south. On one, some places are laid down with two or three different names; on others, these names are applied to as many different places; and from the description of some of them in the Bible, it is certain that different places were intended by the different names. Again, two places are laid down in different parts of the map; but on referring to the Scripture description, it is found that but one place was intended, which was known by both names. Numerous instances of this kind have occurred, which it is unnecessary to particularize. Some of them are mentioned in the Index.'

From these extracts our readers will perceive that the American edition is not a mere transcript of the English, and that no ordinary degree of personal exertion and diligent research has been bestowed upon it. The result, we think, is highly creditable to the ability and research of the editor, the liberality of the publishers, and the talent of the engravers:—a map has been produced which, for accuracy of delineation and elegance of execution, surpasses any thing of the kind that has yet appeared.

The peculiar character of the map will be understood from the following paragraph.

'The object of the present work is to unite with a common geographical map, in a minute, but distinct and lively representation, an image of the most important events in the sacred history, introduced into the map, on the spots where the events occurred. Thus, on the top of Pisgah, is seen the image of Moses beholding the Land of Promise in vision; and on the summit of Mount Tabor, is presented a view of the Transfiguration. It is obvious that in this way, the memory is much assisted in associating the events of the sacred history, with the spots where they took place; and that a map of this construction must be well adapted for popular use, and of great utility to young people. The value, however, of the map will by no means be confined to such persons. It is to be feared that the scriptures are habitually read by Christians of all classes, with-

* Holy War.

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out a distinct apprehension of their contents, for want of a geographical knowledge of the Holy Land. It need not be said, that such knowledge is indispensably necessary to a good understanding of many portions of the Old and New Testaments, and highly useful as disclosing, in all, new proofs of the reality, authenticity, and truth of the sacred narrative.'

The popular character given to this map by the introduction of the illustrative vignettes, is, we think, an excellent recommendation. It renders the study of the map at once easy and interesting, and it excludes nothing which the most rigid geographer would desire to see expressed. Children will examine it again and again, without being tired of the task; and mothers will find it a pleasant vehicle for biblical lessons to their young charge. The effect of the engraved illustrations must also be very conducive to distinct recollections of sacred history; and if there is any thing which this valuable map seems to need, as an addition to its present advantages, it would be a *chronological reference*, annexed in figures to each emblem, or given, if more convenient, in the index; though the arrangement of the references to the vignettes, being chiefly in the order of chronology, may compensate, in some measure, for the want of such an aid.

The English editions of the Map before us, were warmly and justly commended in the periodical and other publications, as the most accurate delineation of the Holy Land, ever offered to public notice. The American edition embraces not only the improvements of the second published in England, but numerous corrections and additions as thus mentioned in the preface.

'Among the additions, are the following:—*Places mentioned by Josephus and other ancient writers*—Tiberias, Tarichæa, Gischala, Sogane, Gabara, Gerasa, Gamala, Canath, Emmaus, Dion, Pella, Bethulia, Raphia, Jenysus, Jennin, Modin, Belus R., Palus Cendovia, Philadelphia, Leontes R., and many others: *Places mentioned in the History of the Crusades*—Darum, Sephor, Scandalion, Karac, Caiphas, Saphet, Thoron, and others: *Places mentioned in Scripture*—Maachah, Hethlon, Riblah, Zedad, Rabbath-Moab, Valley of Zered, Fords of Arnon, Pharpar River, Diblatha, Eglaim, Hobah, Hazarhatticon, Hadrach, Madon, Vale of Kishon, Hammon, Gilgal of Nations, Ahlab, Dibon Gad, Gaulonitis, Decapolis, Trachonitis, Syria-Damascus, Plains of Damascus, Syro-Phœnicia, Bashan or Kingdom of Og, Amorites or Kingdom of Sihon, Kadmonites, Cherethites, Pelethites, Track of the Israelites, with the stations upon it, the notes respecting Havoth-Jair and Argob, and *many* others: *Modern names*—Acre, Bay of Acre, Jaffa, Beirout, Der el Kamr, Esdraelon, Cape Blanco, and others: and many new vignettes and emblems, besides additions to, and alterations of, former ones. The number of vignettes and emblems, (besides the representations of the cities, each of which may be considered as a vignette,) is NOW MORE THAN TWO HUNDRED, instead of *ninety six* promised in the Prospectus. The alterations and additions have not been less than 600 words, comprising the engraving of about 4200 letters, many of which were of the large size, and some ornamented capitals, as Decapolis,

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Gaulonitis, Trachonitis, Bashan, &c. The corrections of errors, in the English spelling and locations of places, have been numerous: of these, the following may serve as a specimen. Upper Galilee, placed on the wrong side of the Jordan, Beneberah, *for* Beneberak, Beth-leaboth, *for* Beth-lebaoth, Chepharhaamonai *for* Chepharhaammonai, Danneh *for* Dannah, Dan Jean *for* Dan Jaan, Ephesdamnin *for* Ephesdammim, Eschol *for* Eshcol, Ethar *for* Ether, Habbakuk *for* Habakkuk, Hilon *for* Hilen, Humlah *for* Humtah, Jerahmelites *for* Jerahmeelites, Pasdammin *for* Pasdammim, Methaor *for* Methoar, Shieron *for* Shicron, Socho *for* Socoh, Timath *for* Timnath, and many others.'

To the English edition of the map was added a sheet of miscellaneous and explanatory matter, but very imperfect as a guide, and very inferior when considered in comparison with the map itself, besides being in many respects inaccurate. The American editor has judiciously avoided copying it, and has, with great care and fidelity, consulted a very considerable number of original and valuable authorities, from which he has been enabled to compile an index more worthy of the map, and one which reflects much credit on his own industry and research. The pamphlet forms, of itself, a very valuable and useful manual whether for general objects or the benefit of instructers. Along with the map, it constitutes, as far as we know, the best accessible means of communicating a full and exact knowledge not only of the geography of the sacred scriptures, but of the present condition of Palestine. The 'general view,' embracing a brief description and history of the country, condenses a vast quantity of valuable and authentic information from the best sources. The 'economical calendar' and the miscellaneous particulars which follow it, along with the tabular view of the seasons, &c., though not perhaps to be expected in such a publication, will be very acceptable to the reader, and will conduce, in no ordinary degree, to a clear and distinct understanding of many parts of scripture. The 'explanatory references to the vignettes and emblems' will be of great use in teaching; and, as they are exhibited chiefly in chronological order, will be of peculiar service in schools where monitorial instruction is adopted; enabling the juvenile teacher to follow a systematic course of lessons, and to impart a regular series of historical instruction, without taxing unduly his own powers or his acquaintance with the subject. The 'geographical index,' however, is perhaps the most valuable part of the pamphlet; and it is here that the diligence of the editor is most conspicuous. This part of the work has, in fact, been rendered so full, that it forms, in the absence of a more regular and ample publication, a very fair substitute for what might be termed a 'gazetteer'* of the bible.

* The author intimates his intention of preparing a work of this kind.—Ed.

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Of the labour necessarily incurred in the preparation of this part of the work the following extract from the preface will give some idea.

'Care has been taken that every word should be correctly spelled, and marked according to its pronunciation. Every name by which any place has been known, will be found in its place in alphabetical order; and where a place has had more than one name, the others refer to that which is most commonly used, where all the others are recapitulated. Different modes of spelling the same word have been referred to, as if they were different names. This will be found peculiarly convenient to general readers, who are frequently embarrassed by the diversity in the spelling of words. When in the course of their reading they meet with the name of a place which happens to be spelled in a different manner from that of the Gazetteers or Maps which they may consult, they are unable to obtain any account of it. The present important missionary station, Beirout, will furnish an example of the difficulty. Its name is spelled, in different works, no less than 17 different ways;* and if a reader should meet with either of the names, and wish to know its situation, on referring to the best Gazetteer, he would find only four of them mentioned. Consequently, if it should be spelled either of the other ways, (and possibly there are still other modes of spelling it,) he would find no account of it.'

The Appendix furnishes several names in addition to those in the body of the pamphlet; and though some of the corrections are perhaps unnecessarily minute, they manifest the editor's anxiety to preserve the utmost exactness in every particular.

To Sunday schools, in particular, the map and the pamphlet which accompanies it, will prove a valuable acquisition. It will also aid very much the objects of 'bible classes,' and the use of it in all schools in which the scriptures are read, would have, we think, a very favourable effect, especially on young pupils, to whom the reading lesson from the scriptures is often found to be unintelligible and uninteresting. We would suggest to the teachers of infant classes, or at least of the younger children in Sunday and primary schools, that the use of the map along with the oral explanations which may be given from the engraved illustrations, will form a very interesting vehicle for religious instruction; the vignettes in this case being used in the way in which the pictures illustrative of the scriptures are employed in the infant schools.

* In the Missionary Herald, it is spelled, in different volumes, Beirout, Beyrout, Berout, and now Beyroot. In the Life of Rev. Pliny Fisk, lately published, it is Beyroot. In Jowett's Christian Researches, Beirout. Dr. Clarke spells it Berooty; the Modern Traveller, Beirout, Bayruth, Bayreut, Beiroot, Beroot, and Berytus; Volney, Bairout; Pococke, Bayreut, and others, Bayreuth, Bayrout, Bayroot, Barout, Beirut, and Beritus.

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INTELLIGENCE.

NEW COLLEGE IN LONDON.

A meeting was held on the 21st of June at the Freemason's Tavern, to consider the means of establishing a new College in the metropolis, under the control of the Established Church, which was numerously attended. His Grace the Duke of Wellington was in the chair, and was surrounded by the Archbishops of Canterbury, York, the Primate of Ireland, the Bishops of London, Durham, Landaff, Bath and Wells, Chester, Litchfield and Coventry, &c. &c., and most of the principal of the nobility. They were hailed on their entrance into the rooms with loud cheering.

The Duke of Wellington briefly addressed the meeting in explanation of the objects for which the meeting had assembled. His Grace said it was necessary in this country, the constitution of which was essentially Protestant, and which religion was established in the land, that a College should be founded wherever its existence was deemed necessary by the heads of that church—seminaries for the diffusion of education—education, which (said his grace) without religious instruction combined, was worse than useless. His grace then declared his approbation of the principles on which it was intended to establish the new College, and sat down amid cheers.

Several resolutions were then adopted unanimously, laying down the necessity for the College, and appointing a committee, containing some of the first names in the country, to conduct the proceedings until another general meeting of subscribers was called.

The subscriptions entered into at the meeting amounted to nearly 20,000 pounds.—*Eng. pa.*

EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

[*Extracts from a Report from the Select Committee on Education in Ireland Reports. Ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, May* 19, 1828.]

The select committee to whom the Reports on the subject of Education in Ireland were referred; and who were empowered to report their observations and opinion thereon to the House;—have agreed to the following Report:

In the execution of the duties entrusted to them, your committee have proceeded to consider the Reports on the state of education in Ireland, with a full sense of the importance of the subject, and of the peculiar difficulties with which it is at the present moment encompassed.

During several centuries, the legislature has recognized the necessity and expediency of providing means for the education of the Irish people. So far back as in the 28 Hen. 8. an Act was passed for the general establishment of parochial schools. By the 12 Eliz. the diocesan schools were founded, affording to the higher classes facilities for education, analogous to those provided for the poorer orders under the statute of Henry 8. It is worthy of observation, that even at this early period the progress of crime is traced by the legislature to the ignorance of the people, and education is relied upon as producing moral improvement, and of supporting the institutions of civil policy. Various

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statutes have been passed on this important subject, in the reigns of Charles II., William III., George I., George II. and George III.; and charters have been granted, and endowments made, with the same intent. These laws and institutions have varied extremely in their spirit and character, according to the temper of the times and the disposition of the government and of the legislature; the latest in their foundation being generally the most comprehensive in their principles.

Inquiries have at different periods been instituted both by committees of Parliament and by Parliamentary commissioners, appointed for the purpose of considering the state of education in Ireland. Of these the most important are the two latest, to which your committee will feel it their duty to make frequent reference. The first of these commissions was issued under the authority of the Act 46 Geo. 3, c. 122, and produced, during the six years ending in 1812, fourteen Reports upon the schools of royal and of private foundation, the charter schools, Foundling Hospital, and the parochial and diocesan schools. The second commission was issued in consequence of an Address from the House of Commons to His Majesty, voted in 1824. This last inquiry was continued till the month of June 1827, and has led to nine Reports on the various establishments for education.

Nor has the interference of the State been solely confined to regulation and to inquiry: Parliamentary grants have been at various times most liberally made for the purposes of education.

Having thus adverted shortly to the legislative proceedings and the Parliamentary grants for promoting education in Ireland, it is important to consider the existing state of the schools now in operation. The number of scholars receiving instruction in 1826, was 560,549; leaving in all probability upwards of 150,000 without the means of education. Of the actual number of scholars returned, 394,732 are brought up in the common pay schools; 46,119 in schools supported exclusively by the Roman Catholic priesthood and laity; 84,295 under various establishments of private charity; and 55,246 (or less than one tenth of the whole) are instructed in schools, maintained in the whole or in part at the public expense. It is also worthy of consideration, that whilst in the list exclusive of the latter establishments (the Association for discountenancing Vice, and the Kildare Place Society) the number of Protestants as compared with Catholics is as 35,354 to 34,616; in the pay schools, the proportion of scholars of the respective religious persuasions is as 87,338 to 307,405. It is, however, right to observe, that at the time these returns were made, many of the children are stated to have been withdrawn from the schools; and consequently the numbers are probably below the real strength of scholars in permanent attendance at other times.

In pursuing their inquiries, your committee have avoided as much as possible the consideration of all questions that would add to existing irritation and party violence. Their sole object has been, to consider the principle upon which it is expedient hereafter to grant public money in aid of Irish education. With this view, your committee have preferred dealing with the proposition in the abstract, to entering upon any detailed examination of the comparative merits of existing establishments.

[The following are among the most important of the resolutions adopted by the committee.]

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that it is of the utmost importance to bring together children of the different religious persuasions in Ireland, for the purpose of instructing them in the general subjects of moral and literary knowledge, and providing facilities for their religious instruction separately, when differences of creed render it impracticable for them to receive religious instruction together.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the selection of teach-

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ers in the schools of general education should be made without religious distinction; but that the qualifications of such teachers should be proved by instruction or examination in a model school established under the direction of the fixed authority appointed by the government; every such teacher being first required to produce a certificate of moral conduct and character from a clergyman of the communion to which he belongs.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that for the purpose of carrying into effect the combined literary and the separate religious education of the scholars, the course of study for four fixed days of the week should be exclusively moral and literary; and that of the two remaining days, the one be appropriated solely to the separate religious instruction of the Protestant children, the other for the separate religious instruction of the Roman Catholic children. In each case no literary instruction to be given, or interference allowed on the part of the teacher, but the whole of this separate religious instruction to be placed under the exclusive superintendence of the clergy of the respective communions.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that copies of the New Testament, and of such other religious books as may be printed in the manner hereinafter mentioned, should be provided for the use of the children, to be read in school at such times of separate instruction only, and under the direction of the attending clergyman; the established version for the use of the Protestant scholars, and the version published with the approval of Roman Catholic Bishops, for the children of that communion.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that Parliamentary aid for the establiament and support of schools in Ireland should be for the future restricted to the following objects;

Granting aid to Parishes, local subscribers or charitable societies for the erection of school houses, such aid not to exceed two thirds of the sum required, and the school house and site to be conveyed to the commissioners; the managers of such schools entering into an engagement to conduct their establishment according to the rules prescribed.

That where a school has been built at their desire, vestries so assembled should have a power of assessing their respective parishes, for raising that portion of school expenditure which is required to be provided locally.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that a board of education should be appointed by the government, receiving salaries and holding their offices during pleasure; all persons being eligible, without reference to religious distinctions.

* * * * To superintend the model schools for the instruction of teachers for the schools of general instruction; such teachers to be supported, during their instruction, at the public expense, when recommended by select vestries, or by persons or societies permanently endowing or having endowed schools.

To grant certificates of qualification to teachers having been duly instructed, or having passed an examination in the model schools.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that as a rule, the children received in the schools of general instruction be required to pay such small sums for their education as may be directed; but that free scholars, being either orphans or the children of parents unable to afford payment, be received on the recommendation of the parochial clergy and of Dissenting ministers, and of persons subscribing to the schools, or having granted land for a site; the power of recommendation being in proportion to the amount of money subscribed.

Such is the plan of education which your committee recommend to the most serious consideration of the House: it is founded on the principles laid down in 1812 and 1824 by the Commissioners of Inquiry, but it carries these principles into effect more strictly than has as yet been suggested or attempted. Your committee cannot avoid expressing the most earnest hope, that, if adopted by the House, their recommendation will satisfy moderate and rational men of all opinions. It has been the object of your committee to discover a mode in

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which the combined education of Protestant and Catholic may be carried on, resting upon religious instruction, but free from the suspicion of proselytism. Your committee have endeavoured to avoid any violation of the liberty of conscience, or any demands or sacrifices inconsistent with the religious faith of any denomination of Christians. They propose leaving to the clergy of each persuasion the duty and the privilege of giving religious instruction to those who are committed to their care. This plan cannot be objected to as disconnecting religion from morality and learning; on the contrary, it binds them together indissolubly, and appears to unite them in a manner suited to the principles of sound policy, good faith, and christian charity.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania, having completed the arrangements for a new organization of the department of Arts, have now the satisfaction of announcing to the public that the studies of the Institution will be resumed on the 15th of September, upon a more extended and efficient system. This notice they deem it proper to accompany with some explanation in regard to the professors to whose care the students are hereafter to be principally committed—the nature and extent of their studies, and finally, the advantages which seem to recommend the position of the University as particularly favourable for the education of youth.

The Faculty of Arts is now composed of the following professors:—

1. Professor of Moral Philosophy, and Provost of the University—the Rev. William H. Delancey.

Assistant Professor of Moral Philosophy—the Rev. Edward Rutledge.

2. Vice Provost and Professor of Mathematics—Dr. Robert Adrain.

3. Professor of Languages—the Rev. Dr. Samuel B. Wylie.

The professorship of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, has not yet been filled; but the Board feel confident of obtaining the services of some distinguished instructer in those branches, in time for the commencement of the session.

Of these gentlemen, the two last have been long distinguished for their talents and success in the instruction of youth; and the merits of the others may be well inferred, from the possession of the learning, the moral character, and the other estimable qualities which have recommended them to the unanimous suffrages of the Trustees.

The course of education pursued in the University will be hereafter announced in detail by the Faculty, and need not now be further described, than as comprising the whole circle of instruction usual among similar seminaries of learning in our country. Its object is to communicate a profound and critical knowledge of the classics, an extensive acquaintance with the different branches of mathematical science, natural philosophy, and chemistry, combined with all the varieties of knowledge comprehended within the sphere of moral philosophy, logic, rhetoric, metaphysics, and the evidences of Christianity.

This course of instruction will occupy four years, beginning with the lowest class, although, as in other universities, students properly qualified will be allowed admission into the more advanced classes.

The college year is divided into two terms; the first commencing in September and ending in March; the second beginning in March and ending in July; leaving only one vacation of about six weeks in midsummer. The price of tuition is at the rate of sixty dollars a year.

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Such are the means and opportunities provided by the Board of Trustees. They have the highest confidence in the eminent teachers whom they have selected—and whose success will be greatly promoted by some collateral advantages in the position of the University, not so fully enjoyed elsewhere. Without intending to discuss the question, which will probably be always an undecided question, of the comparative benefits of private or public instruction, and without meaning to weigh the advantages and the hazards of sending youth at an early age beyond the reach of parental control, it is sufficient to know that there are many families who are unwilling to relinquish to strangers the moral as well as the intellectual cultivation of their children; and there are, perhaps, still more, to whom the expense of sending their sons to a distance is very burdensome. To both these classes the University of Pennsylvania offers great attraction. It enables them to keep their children at home, within the influence of those domestic affections which, addressing at the same time the heart and the understanding of youth, are alike among the best means and the great ends of education; while they have access to as valuable sources of instruction as could be reached by the sacrifice of these ties. From the nature of the relations, too, which exist between the pupils and the professors, there is little room for insubordination, and, still less, for those acts of violence, which have disturbed the peace of other seminaries, while this institution has been entirely exempt from them. The professor here, is the tutor, the friend, and the companion of the studies of his pupil. The superintendence of his deportment out of the university, belongs to his parents and guardians. There is therefore, no personal or detailed inspection, none of the sources of complaint, on the subject of personal comforts, or restrictions—and the professor, freed from all collision on these irritating topics, can exact, and will probably receive, a more willing obedience, in matters belonging exclusively to his instruction. If the absence of this personal superintendence of the professors, secures them a greater degree of discipline in their studies, its place may be more than supplied by the domestic care of parents and guardians, and the restraints of well regulated society. In this last respect, the situation of the university is deemed singularly fortunate.

It will not be considered as the expression of mere local partiality, to say, that the general tone of morals and manners in Philadelphia is at least, equal to that of cities of similar size elsewhere,—and that the cultivation of science and the arts—more general, perhaps, in this city, than in any other of the Union, has diffused throughout the community a taste for liberal studies,—and contributed to form the sober, pious, and regular habits, which characterize Philadelphia. These associations cannot fail to influence the flexible minds of youth, by stimulating their industry—by protecting their leisure from the seductions of dissipation—and by inspiring a respect and fondness for the pure morals, the literary tastes, and the intellectual amusements which surround them. In such a community, youth may be reared under the eye of their parents, with comparatively little danger of injury from bad example,—and even strangers may pursue their studies at but small risk from the contagion of those vicious habits usually ascribed to large cities. The same education moreover would not probably be obtained elsewhere, on terms so reasonable. While the students reside with their families, the whole expense of instruction is sixty dollars a year,—and students from a distance may readily find accommodation in highly respectable and well ordered families, on the most moderate terms. Nor is it a slight advantage, that while engaged in the appropriate studies of the university, the pupils may find ample employment for their hours of leisure, in acquiring all the ornamental parts of education, with great ease and economy, from the best masters; and in the department of modern languages, the city affords the convenience not merely of accomplished instructers, but of that scarcely less efficient aid—personal intercourse with respectable inhabitants of the countries where these languages prevail.

The Board of Trustees now submit their arrangements to the community, with a confident belief, that ample means of education are provided at the

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university; and that both the residents of the city, as well as strangers, may safely confide their children and friends to the care of the gentlemen who conduct the institution.

Wm. White, President of the Board of Trustees. Joseph Reed, Secretary.—*Walsh's Gaz.*

CHARLESTON COLLEGE.

The Trustees of this Institution, desirous of rendering it as extensively useful as possible to the community, have revised its organization, with a view to introduce into its discipline and course of instruction, such alterations as have been found by experience to have a fair claim to the name of *improvements.* The system now introduced, is published below, and is thus submitted to general inspection. It may not, however, be amiss to invite the attention of the public to some of its features, which are esteemed peculiarly valuable. The course of studies in the English department is very much enlarged, and the plan contemplates that this department of the institution shall always be under the charge of an experienced Professor, assisted by one or more instructers. It has long been matter of complaint, that our Colleges have not furnished the means of obtaining an extensive English Education, without obliging their students to engage in a course of classical studies. This defect has been remedied at some of the most distinguished Northern Institutions, and their examples the College of Charleston has not hesitated to follow.

The regular course of studies, it will be perceived, is as extensive as that pursued at any of our Colleges. And this is the path which should be taken by all who expect to become members of the three learned professions, or who design to engage in any line of life which requires the aid of extensive reading. Every young man who looks forward to one of the learned professions, should be anxious to prepare himself to take a place in the first rank of it.

Another improvement introduced into the course, is that which makes provision that the instruction be given by departments; while this arrangement can be no injury to those who are pursuing the regular course, it will be of great benefit to those who may wish to pursue a partial course. Thus any whose pursuits in life render such a course desirable, may study the sciences without giving attention to ancient literature; or they may study Latin and Greek in the classical, and any one of the sciences in the scientific department. The entire machine moves on, in an equable course. If any do not choose to attach themselves to it during the whole way, they may attach themselves through such a part of this course as suits their purpose.

Hitherto the students have been under the inspection of the College Officers only during what are termed the 'College hours;' but hereafter they will be under the inspection of an officer, during the whole time of their remaining upon the College premises, and not merely during the College hours. Such an arrangement, it is believed, will be peculiarly gratifying to parents, since it will afford great additional security to the preservation of the manners and the morals of their sons.

It is well known, also, that the French elementary writers on the exact sciences, are more complete, as well as more clear in their illustrations, and luminous in their arrangement, than those of any other nation. This consideration has induced the Trustees to direct that all the members of the scientific department, be taught to read French, in order that the elementary writers of that nation on the exact sciences, which have not been translated, may be read.

The Institution shall be divided into three departments. These shall be cal-

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led, the English, Classical, and Scientific Departments. They shall be equal in all respects, uniting intimately with each other, and forming one system. Each of the departments shall be under the immediate and special care of an experienced professor, assisted by one or more associate instructers. The students in each department shall be accountable to their immediate instructers—the associate instructers shall be responsible to the head of their department; and the heads of the departments shall be responsible to the President of the College, and in common with him to the Board of Trustees.

The English Department.

4th Class—Reading, Spelling, Defining words, Writing, the first elements of Arithmetic, the first elements of Geography, the first elements of English Grammar.

3d Class—Reading, Spelling, Defining words, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar and Geography.

2d Class—Reading the best English Authors, Spelling and Defining words, a full course of English Grammar, a full course of Geography with the use of the globes, Arithmetic, Writing themes, History, especially American.

1st Class—Algebra, Logic, Rhetoric, Moral Philosophy, Evidences of Christianity, Writing themes, Political Economy, Reading the best English authors, such as Addison, Goldsmith, &c., under the direction, and with the assistance of the professor, who is at the head of the department.

This department embraces a complete course of English education, and furnishes the means of preparing young gentlemen for any situation in life, which does not require the aid of the ancient languages, and the more abstruse sciences. Several of the branches comprised in the first class of this department, belong equally to the scientific department, and by reason of this common ground between them, the members of each department pursuing these branches, shall be taught by the same professor. The members of the first class in this department, may attend one recitation a day, with either of the classes of the scientific department.

Classical Department.

6th Class.—Latin Grammar, Jacob's Latin Reader, Phædrus' Fables, Reading, Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic and Geography, ancient and modern.

4th Class.—Latin Grammar continued, Selectæ e profanis, Cæsar's Commentaries, (6 books,) Turner's Exercises, Cicero's Orations, (4 against Catiline, for Archias the poet, the Manilian Law, Marcellus and Milo,) Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, writing Translations, reading the best English authors, Chronology, Worcester's Geography, ancient and modern, with the use of the globes.

3d Class.—Virgil, (Æneid 6 books,) Latin Prosody, Greek Grammar, Jacob's Greek Reader, Sallust, Cicero de Senectute and Amicitia, Turner's Exercises, writing Translations, reading the best English authors, Writing Chronology, Geography ancient and modern, with the use of the globes.

2d Class.—Virgil, (Georgics,) Horace, (expurgated edition,) Græca Majora, Homer's Illiad, (6 books,) Livy, (5 books,) Arithmetic, reading the best English authors, Chronology, Geography ancient and modern with the use of the globes.

1st Class.—Juvenal, (3, 5, 8, 10, 12 Satires,) Persius, (3d Satire,) Tacitus' Life of Agricola and de moribus Germanorum, Cicero de officiis, Writing themes, reading the best English authors, Græca Majora, Chronology, Geography ancient and modern, with the globes.

The afternoon (2 hours) in this department shall be given to the English studies belonging to it, and the morning, (generally 5 hours, together with the evening, to the classical part. Constant reference shall be had by the scholars in this department, to classical dictionaries, books of Antiquities, the Pantheon, and other works designed for the illustration of classical writers. The first class of this department shall attend one recitation a day with the third class of the scientific department.

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Scientific Department.

3d Class.—Algebra, Geometry, Plane Trigonometry, Descriptive Geometry.

2d Class.—Spherical Trigonometry, application of Albgebra to Geometry, Surveying, Navigation, Levelling, Differential and Integral Calculus, Mechanics, Hydrostatics, Hydrodynamics, Pneumatics.

1st Class.—Rhetoric, Metaphysics, Magnetism, International Law, Constitutional Jurisprudence of the United States, Electricity, Optics, Chemistry, Political Economy, Mineralogy, History of Philosophy, Evidences of Christianity, Paley's Natural Theology, and Astronomy.

Lectures shall be given on Moral Philosophy, Chemistry, Mineralogy, on the Philosophy of language, on the most important of the Greek and Roman Classics, and on all the branches of Natural Philosophy. Not more than four, nor less than two of the members of the scientific department of the two highest classes of the Classical, and the highest class of the English department, shall speak in succession before the College, after morning prayers. The services of the writing master shall be common to all the departments, and the rule in this branch shall be that a scholar be dismissed from it as soon as his hand writing shall be good. If, however, after being dismissed, he neglects his hand writing, he shall return to the direction of the writing master. The members of the scientific department, who shall have pursued a previous course of classical studies, shall have one recitation a week in some advanced classical writer, with a view to promote their classical learning. The students of every department shall remain at the College — hours per day, and shall be constantly under the inspection of their instructers. Each department shall be located by itself, as far as may be convenient. Such of the highest classes of the English as are designed for the sciences, the highest class of the classical, and all the classes of the scientific department, will be taught French, with a view to use the elementary writers of that language in teaching the exact sciences

If any student shall absent himself from the College, before the end of the College term, without being excused by the President, he shall be subject to such censure as may be thought expedient by the Faculty. Every student who shall not have been excused for the absence by the President, shall return punctually at the commencement of each College term. Strictness of discipline shall be maintained, but severity shall be avoided when possible. A new class in each department shall be formed on the first day of January, in every year.

The degree of Bachelor of Arts shall be given to all such as go through the classical and scientific departments. A diploma in the sciences shall be given to such as go through the English and scientific courses. When a young man has completed any part of either of the three courses, a certificate shall be be given him as an evidence of his acquaintance with such branches as he has pursued. As the instruction shall be given by departments, so the examination shall be made by subjects. The examinations shall be long, accurate, and searching. The number of students placed under the heads of the departments, shall by as nearly equal as regard to conveniency will permit. There shall be a written forensic exercise, at stated times, on some subject appointed by the President of the College, and at which he shall preside, by the members of the first class of the English, the first class of the Classical, and all the classes of the scientific department. Instead of written, the President may permit extemporaneous performances in this exercise.—*Charleston Gaz.*

BROWN UNIVERSITY.

Course of Studies, &c.

[From the Catalogue of 1827–8.]

Requirements for Admission.—No person shall be admitted a member of the Freshman Class, unless he have completed his fourteenth year, nor to

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advanced standing without proportional increase of age. He must bring satisfactory evidence of unexceptionable moral character, and be thoroughly acquainted with the Grammar of the Latin and Greek Languages, and be able to construe and parse any portion of the following books, namely:—The Historical Books of the New Testament, Jacob's Greek Reader, Cæsar's Commentaries, Virgil, Cicero's Select Orations, and translate English into Latin correctly. He must also be well acquainted with ancient and modern Geography, Arithmetic, and English Grammar. To enter upon an advanced standing, he must, in addition, be thoroughly versed in all the preceding studies of the Class into which he proposes to be admitted.

The Grammars used in College are Goodrich's or Buttman's Greek, and Adam's Latin Grammar.

The annual examination for entrance is on the day before Commencement.

Freshman Class—First Term.—Algebra, *Colburn.* Horace, *Expurgated edition, with Prosody and Latin Composition.* Xenophon's Cyropædia, *Gr. Maj.*

Second Term.—Algebra, *Colburn.* Horace, Xenophon's Anabasis and Memorabilia.

Third Term.—Algebra, *Lacroix.* Tacitus. Herodotus, Thucydides, *Gr. Maj.*

Sophomore Class—First Term.—Plane Geometry, *Legendre.* Tacitus. Plato, Aristotle, *Gr. Maj.*

Second Term.—Solid Geometry. Juvenal, Perseus, *Edit. Ex.* Rhetoric, with Composition and Declamation, *Blair's Lect.*

Third Term.—Trigonometry. Conic Sections. Logic, with Composition and Declamation.

Junior Class—First Term.—Surveying and Navigation. Euripides, *Gr. Maj.* Moral Philosophy, with Composition and Declamation, *Paley.*

Second Term.—Cicero de Oratore or Quinctilian. Descriptive Geometry. Philosophy of Rhetoric, with Composition and Declamation, *Campbell.*

Third Term.—Philosophy of Rhetoric, with Composition and Declamation, *Campbell.* Integral and Differential Calculus, or French. Natural Philosophy.

Senior Class—First Term.—Natural Philosophy. Intellectual Philosophy. Elements of Criticism, with Declamation and Composition, *Kames.*

Second Term.—Astronomy. Chemistry. Elements of Criticism, with Composition and Declamation, *Kames.*

Third Term.—Hebrew or French. American Constitution and General Law. Botany and Mineralogy. Declamation, Composition, and General Criticism.

Lectures are delivered upon the various branches of study, in connexion with the regular Recitations.

General Information.

Payments.—There are three terms of study in each year, and the expense of each is paid in advance. Students, unless from another College, entering the Freshman Class, pay five dollars; Sophomore Class, eight dollars; Junior Class, twelve dollars; and Senior Class, fifteen dollars. No retrospective tuition, however, is demanded, and a candidate may enter, if qualified, at any period of the course, previous to the last term of the Senior year.

Annual Expense.—College bills, including Tuition, Room Rent, Library, &c. &c. $54 00

Board in commons, about 75

$129 00

The board in commons is charged at its nett expense, and therefore varies with the cost of provisions. Other expenses also vary with the dispositions of

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the Students. Fuel, lights, &c. are at about the same prices as in other New England towns.

Residence.—The Officers of College occupy rooms in the buildings appropriated to the Students, and visit every room at least twice a day.

Exercise.—A very complete Gymnasium, with every variety of apparatus for exercise, has lately been erected on the College grounds.

Recitations.—There are three recitations daily for every class, during the College course.

Examinations.—A public examination of all the classes in College is held at the close of every term, to which the Parents and Guardians of Students, and literary and scientific gentlemen are invited.

Merit Roll.—An accurate and daily account of the delinquencies of every Student, and also of the degree of his attainments, in conduct, scholarship, and attendance, is kept, and the summing up of these items, determines the place of each upon the merit-roll; a copy of which, is transmitted to the parent, in connexion with the regular term bil

Exhibitions.—There are two Exhibitions in every year, one for the Senior, and one for the Junior Class—to be held on the last day of the first and second term.

Commencement—is held on the first Wednesday of September—after which, there is a vacation of four weeks. There are, also, two other vacations, the first commences on the last Friday of December, and continues six weeks—the other on the second Friday of May, and continues three weeks.

[The present number of Students is 104. The following is a list of the Officers of Instruction.]

Rev. Francis Wayland, Jr. D. D. President—Solomon Drown, M. D. Professor of Materia Medica and Botany—Hon. Tristam Burges, LL. D. Professor of Oratory and Belles Lettres—Levi Wheaton, M. D. Professor of the Theory and Practice of Physic—John D'Wolf, A. M. Professor of Chemistry—Usher Parsons, M. D. Professor of Anatomy and Surgery—Rev. Alva Woods, A. M. Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy—Horatio Gates Bowen, A. M. Professor of Natural History, Librarian and Keeper of the Cabinet—William G. Goddard, A. M. Professor of Moral Philosophy and Metaphysics—Rev. Romeo Elton, A. M. Professor of Languages—Silas A. Crane, A. M. Tutor—George W. Keely, A. M. Tutor.

AMERICAN MISSIONARY SEMINARY AT JAFFNA, CEYLON.

[*Resumed from last Number.*]

As the progress of sound learning is an object of pleasing desire to every enlightened and liberal mind, it was not too much to suppose, that the establishment of a respectable literary institution, in a district where there are some hundreds of mission and native schools, most of them badly taught, to take the lead in education—to introduce a better system—and to provide suitable teachers and books; to say nothing of aiding the introduction of real science, in place of useless and ridiculous theories, among a vast population in Jaffna, and on the adjacent continent, would be regarded with general approbation, by the friends of learning, and receive their cheerful support.

Soon after the Prospectus was published, in 1823, the most forward lads were selected from the boarding schools and brought together; teachers were appointed; and instruction was commenced in the seminary, under the name of

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a Central school. This was established at Batticotta, in the district of Jaffna. The object of was to have the internal part of the institution in growth and progress, while efforts were making to prepare more suitable buildings; to obtain a library and apparatus; to secure funds; and to provide for the professorships. The Rev. Daniel Poor, A. M. was constituted Principal, and Gabriel Tissera, a well qualified native, was made English and Tamul tutor. Assistant teachers, also, were provided. A visting committee was appointed for the school; standing regulations were made; and exercises, similar to those contemplated in the original plan, commenced. The system of mutual instruction, by monitors, which is well adapted to counteract the tendency to indolence and inattention, so common to native youth, was in part adopted, and two distinct courses of study, in Tamul and English, were commenced. The first year, 48 Tamul lads, of good caste and promise, were admitted as members of the school, having passed a satisfactory examination in English and Tamul; in the former, not only reading and spelling with propriety, but rendering, with some readiness, from the English Testament into Tamul, and manifesting more or less acquaintance with the first principles of grammar, and the ground rules of arithmetic; and in the latter, showing different degrees of progress in the Tamul dictionary, called Negundoo. The students were divided into two classes, according to their proficiency; and as there was considerable dissimilarity among them, it required much time, not only to ground them more thoroughly in the studies to which they had attended, but to produce such an equality in each class as to allow of its making much advance in new acquirements. To the end of 1824, the students of the first class were occupied in perfecting their acquaintance with English Grammar, and proceeding slowly, but carefully, in Arithmetic through all the tables, the compound rules, and reduction;—the second, learning accurately the rules of Grammar, with their application in Etymology and Syntax, connected with reading, spelling, and writing English, and also translating English into Tamul, and Tamul into English. In the prosecution of Tamul literature, one class had commenced Nannool, the Grammar of the high language, on a scientific plan; while another had continued the study of the Negundoo, and the reading of Tamul poetry, according to their native system. The christian scriptures were also regularly studied. The number of scholars at the close of the year was reduced to thirty six, in consequence of some having been taken to fill situations in the mission, and others, for various reasons, dismissed. The next year, the first class attended to the elements of Geography and Astronomy; and went through all the principal rules of Arithmetic—studying with much particularity Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Progression, and the Roots. The second class finished their English Grammar, committed a vocabulary in English and Tamul, proceeded in Arithmetic, as far as through the Single Rule of Three, and, with the first class, were exercised in writing and drawing maps. In Tamul literature, the two classes continued their studies as before.—*Account of the Seminary.*

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Outlines of the History of Ancient Rome, embracing its Antiquities; on the plan of the Rev. David Blair. Adapted to Schools in the United States. With Engravings. Boston. S. G. Goodrich. 1828. 18mo. pp. 312.

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Teachers have hitherto had to complain of great defects in the current books of Roman history. Most are very vague and irregular in their narration, objectionable in many of their details, both as to style and matter, and deficient in the necessary illustrations drawn from the study of antiquities.

The compiler of the volume mentioned above, has avoided these faults, by arranging the history in definite periods, inserting distinct biographical notices of eminent men, and annexing appropriate questions to every page. The utmost pains seem to have been taken to render every event and every character, clear and impressive. The treatise on antiquities is a highly valuable appendage to the history, and will be of effectual service to the young reader, in enabling him to understand the narrative which he is to read and recite. For any advantage of this sort the pupil has been dependent hitherto on the oral explanations of his teacher; an aid which is but too seldom afforded.

The style of this work is in general exceedingly well adapted to the minds of young people. The cuts illustrative of costume &c., are, with the exception of the two at the opening of the volume, very neat as well as accurate. The accents denoting the pronunciation of proper names will be very useful in most schools and especially in those for young ladies, in which Latin prosody is seldom attended to.

The book will, in all respects, be found a very desirable substitute for the defective compends in common use. If read previously to entering on classical studies, it will form an agreeable introduction to them; and during the time of perusing the minor authors, in particular, it will throw much much light on obscure passages, and greatly facilitate the learner's progress.

Conversations on Political Economy; in which the Elements of that science are familiarly explained. By the Author of Conversations on Chemistry and Natural Philosophy. Corrected and improved, and adapted to the use of Schools. By Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 12mo. pp. 330.

This book is designed to aid the introduction of another branch of education in addition to the many now commonly offered in the advertisements of schools and academies. The popular interest of this comparatively recent science will no doubt extend itself to all places of education, not even excepting those designed for the female sex. Nor can we see any harm in this circumstance, if pupils are not permitted to slight the common branches in aspiring after this. Some information on the subject to which this work is devoted, is important to every person, and is reasonably expected of every intelligent mind.

The work before us is, in its original form, the production of a lady whose other school books have acquired an extensive and merited reputation. The present edition is revised by a gentleman to whom the cause of education is indebted for many excellent class books, and particularly for his improved editions of the other works of the author just mentioned.

The Conversations on Political Economy were originally prepared with reference chiefly to the instruction of females; and to this object they are peculiarly suited. At the same time, their copious and familiar explanations will render them very serviceable to young learners in any school in which they may be introduced.

In what we have said of this work we have spoken merely of its adaptation to instruction as a school book. Political economists are much at variance among themselves; and the theory of the Conversations may, in several of its details, appear questionable to some minds. On the whole, however, the author has kept pretty close to actual and uncontroverted points, and has throughout exhibited a very clear, simple, and intelligible view of the subject.

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Outlines of the History of England, on the plan of Rev. David Blair. Adapted to the use of Schools in the United States. With Engravings. Boston. 1828. S. G. Goodrich. 18mo. pp. 391.

Goldsmith's Abridgement of English history, though, in some respects, a very objectionable book for schools, has, owing to the fluency and charm of its style, long retained its place among popular class books. In displacing it for any other work, we should feel as if parting with an agreeable and long esteemed friend. It is certainly deficient, however, in accuracy, and it is far from being complete or satisfactory, even as an epitome. The style, though easy, is careless, and often incorrect; and the phraseology is in some parts, unhappy in its moral associations.

The volume before us will be found uncommonly interesting, in its useful and agreeable intermixture of illustrations drawn from antiquities and biography. The narrative is thus rendered distinct and intelligible; and the history is presented to view in the lives and characters of distinguished individuals. The whole is arranged in clear and natural periods, calculated to facilitate the recollection, and subdivided by the mention of the prominent events in each. Questions for examination are added to every page. In schools in which the history of the United States has already been studied by the older scholars, this book will be a useful and agreeable advance in historical reading. If there is any history which is important to the youth of the United States, next to that of their own country, it is that of England; whose constitution and laws are the sources of our own. In this view, the Introduction to the work, which gives a sketch of the condition of the British Empire, will be found peculiarly valuable.

On the whole, this compend embraces, we believe, in addition to the historical part, a vast quantity of useful and entertaining information not found in any other.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Summer Excursions, or Sketches of the Melville Family. Lancaster. F. & J. Andrews. 1828. 18mo. pp. 100.

This little volume is evidently written with excellent intentions, and with a sincere desire for the moral and religious improvement of the young. There is great irregularity, however, in the style of the book; (see, for instance, the first paragraph;) and regarding the publication as designed chiefly for children, we cannot but think some of its details must prove *uninteresting* and unintelligible. The vivacity of the author's manner is an excellent trait in a writer for the juvenile library, but it needs regulation to render it effective.

If we might venture to speak at random, we should call this a first effort, which bespeaks talent capable of doing much for the entertainment and instruction of childhood. We hope to meet the author again in the same field of usefulness.

Errata.—Page 536, ninth line from top, for 'as ever trod the earth,' read 'as' *any people that* 'ever' &c.—Page 540, eighteenth line from bottom, for 'think so serious of' &c., read 'think' *seriously* 'of' &c.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

INFANT SCHOOL SOCIETY IN BOSTON.

[It gives us great pleasure to have it in our power to present the following articles to our readers. The establishment of infant schools in most of our large cities, is an event of great moment to the happiness and the respectability, as well as the mental and moral elevation, of the poor. As yet, the experiment has been nominally restricted to this class; but the spirit of the method adopted in the infant schools is perceptibly advancing in all schools for young children, to the great improvement of the little pupils, and the relief and satisfaction of the teachers. We hope to see something more definite than this, however: we earnestly wish, as we have often taken occasion to express, that the community might have a fair opportunity of observing the effects of an infant school established on a liberal plan for the instruction of the children of people in good circumstances.* For, if the system of infant cultivation makes such progress, even when struggling against the impediments necessarily arising from extreme poverty and neglect, the peculiar facilities which it affords for the improvement both of mind and body, would certainly operate to much greater advantage, if not only unrestricted by circumstances, but favored by the various means which comparative wealth would command.

We are happy to learn that the Directresses of the Society in Boston intend permitting the public to enjoy an opportunity of witnessing the progress of the children in the school in Salem Street. As the society is strictly a charitable one, and the occasion alluded to will enable those who are present to express

* Since the above was put in type, we have had the gratification of learning that the gentleman referred to at page 564, is about to establish a school of the kind mentioned. Ed.

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their interest in the subject of infant schools in such a manner as to benefit this benevolent undertaking, we cannot but hope that an ample contribution will be the result.

Instead of pursuing this subject farther at present, we would offer our readers the following copy of a letter from an American gentleman in Liverpool, dated June 5.]

'We attended a few days since an infant school, which has given me quite new views and feelings on the subject. I have seldom been more affected—it is not too strong a word—than in seeing, as we did, a hundred little creatures, several of them not two years old, thus collected together. I am not very apt to shed tears; but I could not prevent them from repeatedly flowing into my eyes. How many, how various, how deep associations are there with such a group; and with the thought of that most christian and most judicious charity, which is preparing them to act their parts in life long after we must have passed away!

'I had had no conception of the possibility of preserving so much order and stillness among such young children, (all under eight years of age), as we found to exist, apparently without harshness or unpleasant constraint. They are called upon to repeat the pence table, the multiplication table, to tell the number of seconds in a minute, of minutes in an hour, &c. with the names of the months, to answer in their catechism, and to repeat the commandments abbreviated; all which a majority of them did, speaking together, clapping their hands in unison in their *secular* exercises. Then they were amused by following the motions of their principal mistress, who imitated those used in different employments, repeating the explanation of *them*, as for instance, "This is the way we sow the corn," or "This is the way we wash the clothes," and "This is the way we wring the clothes,' &c. After this about half the school, the boys, went to play in the yard; and the girls went into another room, where, on the system of mutual instruction, a number of little monitors, five, six, and seven years old, were employed in instructing small groups of other children, teaching some their letters, and instructing others more advanced, in reading. The children too young to learn were put on a carpet, to sleep or play, as they pleased. Connected with this school was another for children more than seven years of age, containing somewhere about two hundred.

'The advantages of the infant school are, in relieving poor, labouring mothers, compelled to work hard in order to obtain a

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livelihood, from the necessity of leaving their children neglected a great part of the day. In the lower classes the mother can often take but the most imperfect care of their comfort or improvement. They fatigue and irritate her with their applications and complaints; and the bonds of maternal affection are thus weakened. In the school which I saw, the work of fifty mothers, for six hours in the day, is done by two school mistresses, an immense saving of labour, resembling that effected by some mechanical contrivances. The children at school are, at the same time, occupied and amused. They are learning what will be of essential use to them, enabling them to secure many advantages for improving their condition in future life. And what is of the highest importance, their minds are imbued with moral and religious sentiments and principles. But I cannot, and need not, enlarge on the subject; for what I should say will occur to your own mind.

'I have sent you all the papers relative to these schools which I can procure in this place. I am quite desirous that you should bring the subject before the public in Boston, as an important object of attention. You will make any use of my letter which you please. I omitted to mention that the little children sung a very pretty, simple hymn about their infant school, written by the Bishop of Chester."

Constitution and By-Laws of the Infant School Society. Boston. 1828.

[We are happy to understand that the mode of instruction adopted in the school in Salem Street is not an attempt at a literal copy of any model, but has been allowed to form itself by circumstances, and to grow with the progress of the scholars. The instructer has acted in the true spirit of the method of Pestalozzi, keeping the mechanical part of teaching strictly subordinate to the mental. His success during the short period of his exertions hitherto has been very satisfactory.]

Preface The success of Infant Schools in England, as well as in New-York and Philadelphia, and the great benefit derived from them, excited the attention of many benevolent persons in Boston to this form of charity. A small number of ladies having conversed together on this subject last winter, determined to attempt the establishment of an Infant School in this city.

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On inquiry into the condition of the families of the poor, they satisfied themselves, that such a school would be of eminent service, both to parents and children. By relieving mothers of a part of their domestic cares, it would enable them to seek employment, and obtain the means of support for their families, while the children would be removed from the unhappy associations of want and vice, and be placed under better influences. It was ascertained that many mothers, who depended on their labour for a livelihood, were obliged to remain at home, and that in other families, the older children were kept from school, to take care of those who were too small to be left alone. Several ladies consented to solicit contributions to this object. The plan was generally approved, and in a short time a sum, a little exceeding one thousand dollars, was collected, of which about three hundred dollars were in annual subscriptions, and the remainder in life subscriptions and donations.

The projectors of the school were so happy at this time, as to be introduced to Mr. Amos B. Alcott, who had lately taught a school for small children in Connecticut, on an improved plan, with great success. Mr. Alcott consented to undertake the superintendence, for three months, of the Infant School which it was proposed to establish here. At a meeting of the subscribers they adopted a constitution and by-laws for their society, and requested Mr. Alcott to visit the infant schools of New York and Philadelphia, and be prepared to enter on his duties on the first of June. The opening of the school however, was delayed a few weeks, by the difficulty of procuring a suitable school room.

A female Instructer and Assistant have been appointed, and, although the annual income of the society is not yet sufficient to meet the expenses of the school, even on the most economical plan, the managers have resolved to begin, in the hope of meriting, and obtaining further aid. They are persuaded that this is one of the most effectual modes of promoting moral and religious improvement, and of preventing vice in the poorer classes of society, which has yet been devised; and they trust that this will be so apparent from the result of the experiment now to be made, that the cheering and generous support will not be withheld from them, which institutions for the benefit, more especially for the moral improvement of the poor, have always received among us.

The contributions to this society have been obtained principally from the friends and acquaintance of its founders; and

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the subscribers constitute a small portion only of our citizens who are in the habit of patronizing similar objects. It is not doubted that other schools will be established in different parts of the city. A plan of instruction which proposes to preserve young children from the dangers of neglect, and vicious example, and at the same time secure to them the continual operation of the best moral, intellectual, and physical influences, cannot fail of finding favor with the enlightened and benevolent; and it is confidently hoped that the blessing of God will rest on these sincere, though humble attempts to promote the welfare of his creatures.

Boston, June, 1828.

The School is located in Salem Street. The Treasurer may be found at No. 60, Chestnut Street.

Constitution. Art. 1. This society shall be called the Infant School Society.

2. The object of this society is the establishment and continuance of one or more Infant Schools in Boston, for the benefit of the poor.

3. Members shall pay an annual subscription of not less than two dollars, or a life subscription of twenty dollars. Each member shall have the privilege of placing a child in the school, in case of a vacancy, and with the approbation of the visiting manager of the month.

4. The direction of the society shall be invested in a first Directress, a second Directress, a Treasurer, a Secretary, twelve Managers, and twelve Assistant Managers. The four first named officers, however, may be chosen from the Board of Managers.

5. An annual meeting of the society shall be holden on the first Wednesday of May, when the officers shall be elected, and other necessary business be transacted.

6. Monthly meetings shall be held on the first Wednesday of every month, which the first and second Directress, the Treasurer, the Secretary, and the Managers shall attend. Five shall constitute a quorum. At these meetings shall be discussed and decided, all matters of business or interest, relating to the school, or the society, which may be presented.

7. It shall be the duty of the first Directress, and in case of her absence, of the second Directress, to preside at all meetings, to preserve order and secure despatch in business, to give or-

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ders for the payment of bills, and to call extra meetings, when deemed necessary. In the absence of the first and second Directress, one of the managers present, shall be chosen to preside.

8. It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to hold, and invest all monies belonging to the society, to pay all bills approved by the Directress, to keep fair accounts of receipts and disbursements, and vouchers for the same, which shall be exhibited to the Managers or Secretary, when required, and to present at the annual meeting a report of the state of the treasury, the expenses of the school, &c. No money shall be paid, except by order of the first or second Directress, or in case of their absence, of the Directress chosen pro tem.

9. It shall be the duty of the Secretary to keep regular records of the transactions at the monthly and annual meetings; to notify the meetings, and to present at the annual meeting a report of the state of the society; its success, prospects, &c.

10. The school shall be visited at least twice a week, by one of the managers, to each of whom this duty shall be assigned for the term of one month, who shall be at liberty to require such aid from one of the assistant managers, as she may deem expedient. At each monthly meeting the visiting manager of the previous month shall render a report of the state of the school. It shall be the duty of the managers, or at their request, of the assistant managers, to select the children, visit their parents, enforce cleanliness and punctuality, give advice, assistance, &c.

11. Each assistant manager shall be in readiness to afford her assistance, when called upon by the manager, *during* the term of one month. It shall also be the duty of the assistant managers to solicit, and collect subscriptions.

12. A gentleman shall be appointed at the meeting of the managers previous to the annual meeting to audit the Treasurer's accounts.

13. At the meeting of the managers preceding the annual meeting, a committee of six shall be appointed, whose duty it shall be, together, to visit the school, to make or attend to a thorough examination of the children, and at the annual meeting of the society, to give in a report of the state of the school, and of any improvements which they think may be made in its instruction or discipline. At this examination the parents of the children, and the friends of the school may be invited to be present.

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14. The Managers shall have the power to fill any vacancies which may occur among the officers of the society.

34. Any alteration may be made in this Constitution at an annual meeting, by a vote of two thirds of those present.

By-Laws of the Infant School Society. 1. No child shall be admitted under the age of eighteen months, and not more than one fifth of the children at any time in the school shall exceed the age of four years, excepting those who, at their admission, shall be between three and four years, who may remain one year.

2. A gentleman and lady, as instructers, and a female attendant, will be appointed to conduct the school. Salaries to be determined by the managers.

3. Children may be brought as early in summer as six o'clock in the morning, and remain till seven in the evening. Hours in winter, eight in the morning, and five in the evening. These hours may be altered at the discretion of the managers.

4. The female attendant will be at the school at six o'clock, A. M. in summer, and eight, A. M. in winter, to receive and take care of those children who are brought so early. At seven o'clock in summer, and eight in winter, the female Instructer will arrive, and relieve the attendant, who in summer will be allowed one hour for the purpose of going home to breakfast.

5. At eight o'clock in summer, and nine in winter, the male teacher, or the female superintendent will appear, and the regular course of instruction commence, and continue till twelve o'clock, with the exception of such periods for refreshment and rest, as the Instructers find necessary. At twelve o'clock, recreation, either in the school-room or play-ground, will follow till three o'clock in summer and two in winter, when school will again commence, and continue two or three hours as the Instructers find most expedient.

6. A room distinct from the school-room will be prepared, where the assistant will be present to take care of the children's things, and pay them every attention they may need. Accommodations will be provided in this room for the use of such children as need to lie down.

7. Each child will be provided with a peg, numbered and appropriated to his or her use, for coats, hats, &c. Also with a basket, tin plate, and two coarse napkins for the purpose of bringing the dinner in a neat manner.

8. Parents, whose children remain at noon, are to furnish their dinner. The society furnish a slight meal once or twice a day, of bread, water, milk, or fruit, as the managers shall direct.

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9. The number of children may not exceed fifty the first quarter, but afterwards be increased at the discretion of the managers.

10. Parents shall be required to pay on every Saturday night the sum of six cents, whether they send one or more children; and no child for whom payment is omitted, shall continue in the school after the end of the current quarter.

11. No child can be received after nine, A. M. It is required that the children be presented each day at school clean washed, and dressed in whole and clean clothes.

12. Such is the method of instruction and management proposed, that it is presumed there will be very little occasion for punishment. No corporeal punishment will be allowed.

13. A small library, containing books suitable for the Instructers and the children, will be purchased at the commencement of the school, and such additions made to it from time to time, as the funds will allow, and the managers shall see fit.

14. All cases not provided for by the Constitution and By-laws, may be decided by the visiting manager, and shall be stated in her monthly report.

15. Any alteration may be made in the By-laws, at a monthly meeting of the managers.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

Plan for a Fellenberg School, in a letter addressed to Jonathan Roberts, President of the Pennsylvania Agricultural Society, from Anthony Morris, Esq.

[Concluded.]

It would probably be a more arduous task to procure from the legislature of Pennsylvania the public patronage it so justly merits, than to establish an institution by individual efforts, and thus to anticipate legislation. We have seen extensive military schools rise up and flourish among us, by the efforts only of individuals, and attain celebrity in the objects of their institutions, without, perhaps, an adaptation to our national character and interests as universal as agriculture and civil education.

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Individual effort seems, indeed, a safe and sure foundation for this system, and less liable to delay and defeat than legislation. The system has flourished in Switzerland, not only without the support of the government, but in opposition to the aristocratic features of the constitution of the Canton of Berne, because its principles are in accordance with the spirit of the age, and extend the blessings of education to the country population.

To this great class in Pennsylvania, the least attention has been paid. Human labour on our farms has been left almost to its own undisciplined operations. No science enlightens it; no system regulates it: it is not accompanied in the field by economy, nor by temperance, nor rewarded at the fireside of the peasant by content and competence. A day of undisciplined drudgery, stimulated in the field by whiskey, is often succeeded in the cabin of the cottager, by a night passed in the riot of intemperance, or the stupor of intoxication. A week of drunkenness may be purchased by a little more than a day of labour, and as long as ignorance shall be the inheritance of the labourer, intemperance will be his companion, and his consolation, against that listlessness and languor for which the resources of science are the only substitutes.

Should we conceal the prevalence of ignorance and intemperance among us, we should never succeed in removing them. It may be too late to hope for reformation or improvement in those farmers and labourers, who, having began their career in life without science or system, must expect to finish it without profit and without pleasure. But it can never be too early to lay a new foundation for the hopes and the prospects of the rising generation, enlightened by all the discoveries of the present day, and encouraged by the successful efforts and examples of such patriots as Fellenberg, who have never sought for a place beyond the farms cultivated by their fathers; nor for power, but over the passions and prejudices of their fellow creatures; and who, leaving to others the fields of political and party warfare (in which numbers will never be wanting) have devoted their lives to the moral and intellectual advancement of man.

An obvious defect in our national character is thought to originate from the inadequate portion of time which is generally devoted to the acquisition of knowledge, and particularly of elementary and classical knowledge, as the best foundation for every other; and from the miscellaneous and superficial education which a great number of the American youth receive, being

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neither adapted particularly to agriculture, professional, commercial, nor mechanical destinations in life, but leaving the unfortunate subject of such a system to be guided in his after pursuits, more by the false pride of parents and other incidental causes, than by any fixed and permanent principles. A change of system in this respect would probably do much to promote a change from an injurious and speculative versatility of character, to a systematic permanency in the pursuit of those objects to which an early system of education had been directed.

Our prejudices lead us to associate all ideas of schools and scholars, with houses, and desks, and benches; while the field itself, the great scene of the farmer and labourer's operations, is seldom suggested as the best school for his practical instruction.

The field lessons and labours in practical agriculture at Hoffwyl, are among the most animating and instructive lessons of man. It is, perhaps, there only that science and labour are seen, hand in hand, supporting and assisting each other, and that a system of education having its foundation in the pure principles of christianity, and separated from all sectarian controversy, is made subservient to the improvement, moral, intellectual, and practical, of man, in every grade of the human family. Is not systematic instruction in his occupation as essential to a farmer, a field labourer, and a gardener, as to a carpenter or a mason? Can system be obviously more necessary in any department of life than in our agricultural practices? And can any system be selected from the distant and diversified practices of our best farmers—a comparison between which and their results can never be fairly made. It is only where a variety of culture can be exhibited at one time in one place and on scientific principles, that comparisons can be made or just conclusions formed.

The principle of pattern farms, at the expense of the State, so long solicited in vain from our legislature by the politicians of former days, it would perhaps be useless at this moment to attempt to revive. You will see in this project a substitute for these, combining instruction with exhibition. To have some ground to go upon, I have selected Bolton farm, near Bristol, in Pennsylvania, as the locality for the first Agricultural Institute. It is an estate of my son James Pemberton Morris, who puts such parts of it as I may select at my disposition, uniting in my wishes for the education of his children in such an institution. The farm consists of near five hundred acres, is situated in a

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healthy country, on the verge of the manor of Pennsborough, once the residence of the founder of Pennsylvania, and selected by him for its fertility and favorable position as to intercourse by land and water; to which natural facilities will soon be added those of the Delaware canal, located near it, and communicating directly with Philadelphia at the distance of twenty miles from Bolton.

Next to the farm it is desirable to find the Fellenberg. This is the most difficult part, but will be surmounted, if Mr. Woodbridge, who has received practical instructions at Hoffwyl, will assume that character. Then are to be found the funds, which should come, I think, from the scholars, on the same system that has elevated to so merited an eminence among our scientific institutions, the Medical School of Philadelphia; no stated salary being annexed to each professor's chair, but the whole emolument arising out of the instruction from each, would be apportioned to its particular professor and assistant.

Such, sir, are the outlines of a plan for the introduction into the United States of a system of education believed to be adapted to the character of our country, and especially applicable to those interests and employments, in which the greatest numbers are engaged, and to which, heretofore, the least instruction has been extended.

My immediate object in this communication, is to obtain the expression of your opinion on the subject of it, which I have no other right to solicit, than that which is founded on a belief that it merits, and will receive, particular respect and attention from those classes, especially, whom it more immediately concerns. It is so far circular, as to be similar to those addressed to Mr. Fellenberg, of Hoffwyl; to Mr. Madison, to Judge Peters, the President of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society, from all of whom the most strongly expressed and favourable opinions have been received, and are in the hands of the chairman of the Committee on Agriculture in the House of Representatives.

I am, sir, most respectfully, your obedient servant, &c.

ANTHONY MORRIS.

To JONA. ROBERTS, Esq.
President of the Pennsylvania Agricultural Society.

Penn. Gaz.

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INTELLIGENCE.

INFANT SCHOOLS.

School in Philadelphia.

[Copy of a Letter to the Managers of the Infant School Society of the Northern Liberties and Kensington.]

Although the receipt of your letter should have been acknowledged at an earlier day, the visit which you so kindly invited me to make, was not delayed; I have the satisfaction, therefore, of having, besides the account of the Infant Schools, which you did me favour to send me, the higher gratification of a personal inspection of those useful seminaries.

Whatever doubts may have been entertained on the expediency of schools of this kind, either because, as it was alleged, they would produce an unnatural separation of children from their parents at so tender an age, or induce an improper dependence upon public care, which ought not to be encouraged, those doubts must, I think, be removed, by the powerful and touching facts which the brief history of your schools can furnish. Results of the most opposite nature to those anticipated, abundantly test their utility; and the small expense you have incurred in organizing, and the economy with which you have conducted, *under the superintendence of female teachers*, the three schools I have seen, will, I trust, recommend this branch of education to the especial notice and regard of the Controllers of the Public Schools.

The principal objection which the members of that body entertained to this department of instruction, arose from the fear of a large increase of expenditure, to that already made for the education of our indigent youth.

I think, however, it will be found that the moral and religious culture and habits of discipline, for the inculcation of which the Infant Schools are admirably calculated, will essentially prepare the children for the other schools, where, in consequence of such training, a much shorter term will be required to give them the course of instruction designated, than is now necessary; so that the gain for the community, and for the pupils taught gratuitously, will be great in every respect.

With these opinions, deliberately formed, it will afford me pleasure to unite with my colleagues of the Board of Control, should they adopt similar views, and at a future time, under the authority granted by the last legislature, provide '*for the instruction of children less than five years of age.*' It is proper, however, to remark, that no part of the School Fund of the present official year, can be applied to this purpose. In the mean time, I am sure your disinterested and valuable labours will be sustained by the pecuniary aid of our benevolent fellow-citizens.

Very respectfully, your friend, &c.

(Signed) ROBERTS VAUX.

7 mo. 25, 1828.

Walsh's Gazette.

Schools in Villages.

We learn from a correspondent that a Society has been formed at Rhinebeck, for the establishment of Infant Schools. So efficient have been their efforts, that after only two meetings, and those within one week, they have organized

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their Society, procured a suitable room and play-ground, a capable teacher, and ample funds to put the whole into operation as soon as the necessary furniture and apparatus for teaching can be procured.—*N. Y. Obs.*

DIFFUSION OF PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

The Rensselaer School. The founder of this school, Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer, has given notice that any gentleman, of good moral character, above the age of eighteen, who shall obtain a certicate from the first judge of any county, (who is to issue one only) in that State, that his education is sufficient to teach any incorporated Academy in the county, and give assurances that if he is admitted to a course of experimental instruction at the expense of the Hon. S. Van Rensselaer, he will return to that county and exert himsel to the best of his abilities to introduce and extend the experimental plan of education, with its application to agriculture and the arts, for the benefit of the farmers and mechanics of that county, provided he can receive a reasonable compensation for his services—shall be furnished with instruction at the Rensselaer School in Troy, during the ensuing fall term of fifteen weeks, to commence on the third Wednesday in July. He shall also be furnished with the chymical tests, re-agents, and other substances necessary to be consumed by him in his experiments, with fuel, lights, use of chymical and philosophical apparatus, library, reading room, lecture rooms, cabinet, the services of the school-waiter, and other advantages usually furnished to the students of the said school, free of all charges.—*Zion's Herald, June* 11.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.

The twenty-thirdd annual meeting was held May 12th. The report stated that the central schools were never in a more flourishing condition than they had been during the past year; and that the clean and healthy appearance of the children, the knowledge they had obtained, and particularly their acquaintance with the sacred Scriptures, had given the most unqualified satisfaction. During the past year a great addition has been made to the number of the schools, while it is still in contemplation to establish many new ones. In the Ionian Islands the cause of Bible instruction is rapidly advancing; and the king has given a donation of fifty pounds to assist in that immediate object. In Ireland, the British and Foreign School system has proved an immense blessing to thousands; and in the Highlands of Scotland its benefits are highly appreciated. In France, and throughout the continent of Europe, as well as in India, the cause of this Society advances with delightful tokens of success.—*Bost. Record.*

EDUCATION IN GREECE.

[Extract of a Letter from the Rev. Mr. Brewer, in the Boston Daily Advertiser.]

At Malta, the American and two English presses, with other objects in view, are doing much for the interests of education in Greece. A detailed explanation of the system of mutual instruction, several school books, (speci-

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mens of which may be seen at the Athenæum,) and other books for children, have been sent forth from the American press.

In general, newspapers are read with the same avidity as with us, and though as yet among the multitudes who are able to read, there is far from being much interest taken in other species of reading, still such a spirit will no doubt be enkindled, as the other means of education come to be employed.

Of these the most important, unquestionably, are, *schools of mutual instruction, or Lancasterian schools*. The tables adapted to this system were translated into modern Greek, some time previously to the commencement of the present revolution. They were published under the patronage and at the expense of the Hospodar of Moldavia. Some improvements therein made, were taken notice of with approbation, by one of the learned societies of Paris. Cleobulus, the translator, has been now several years in Greece, and has succeeded in establishing more than fifty schools where his tables are used, and whose masters have become slightly acquainted with the system from his instruction. It is true the poverty of the people has prevented these schools from flourishing to much extent hitherto. Every one acquainted with this system, knows that in order to give it efficiency, it is necessary to have a room of ample dimensions, with suitable seats, materials for writing, &c. Instead of these, however, the children in most instances are crowded into narrow and dark rooms, often seated on the floor, with nothing on which to write, save a bit of tin, horn, &c. Still, any schools, however badly conducted, on this system, are far preferable to the old, where a boy is taught only to stammer (or rather sing) in ancient Greek, without being able at all to comprehend the meaning of his lesson.

Some of the best schools in the country were established by foreigners, at Missolonghi, Athens, and Argos, and were, as is well known, broken up when those cities fell into the hands of the Turks. The former teacher of the Lancasterian school of Athens, is now, however, master of a respectable school at Napoli. There is also another at Naxos, with more than two hundred pupils, and a small yet well conducted school for females, under the superintendence of Cleobulus, at Syra. The school which I myself established at Syra, probably contains at the present time three hundred children of both sexes, and it is to be hoped may through the liberality of the friends of humanity in this country, prove a model school of high order.

NOTICES.

A new improved Dictionary for Children, or Definition Book, for the use of Schools; being a Selection of the most important and necessary English Terms, with plain, simple Explanations. By J. Kingsbury. Boston. Munroe & Francis. 1822. pp. 299.

The compilation of school dictionaries has been managed for the most part with very little attention to the capacity of those who use them; the grand object, apparently, being abridgment rather than selection. The editors of such books seem anxious to do justice to the English language, by inserting a large proportion of its words, rather than to consult the wants of children, and afford them the aid which they need. We have had columns of *definitions*, instead of *explanations;* and the young scholar has not unfrequently found, on turning to his dictionary, that the word used as a definition is much less

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intelligible than the word it is used to define. He finds himself, in fact, much in the situation of Lancelot Gobbo's father in quest of the Jew's house, when he was directed by his shrewd-witted son first to turn to the right hand, and then to the left, and last of all to 'turn of no hand.'

Besides the vagueness of the definitions, the number of words has been unnecessarily burdensome; extending far beyond the limits of a child's reading, not to say beyond that of most adults. Added to which is another disadvantage in many of our current school dictionaries, the insertion of words necessarily associated with meanings which it is improper to bring, in any way, before the minds of children.

The object of the dictionary under notice, is to avoid these defects by a careful selection of words neither too simple and common for explanation, nor nor too rare and abstruse for the average reading of childhood. Several important advantages are in this way secured. The pupil's memory is not strained by unnecessary and mechanical exertions on unintelligible matter, which serve no purpose but to quash the natural curiosity of the young mind, rendering the study of the English language an irksome task, and, in the issue, enfeebling the mental powers. At the same time that these evils are shunned, there is great positive gain, on the plan adopted in this dictionary. The learner is enabled to enjoy the benefit of finding out for himself the signification of words which he cannot understand without assistance; and application is thus rendered both practicable and pleasant, the mind is kept active when it would otherwise be idle, and is rendered clear and distinct in its conceptions, by the habit of attaching an exact and definite idea to every word. A taste for reading is also favoured in this way, and a good foundation laid for an intelligent use of language.

Of the execution of this work we entertain a highly favourable opinion. The author's undertaking was a difficult one, and she has acquitted herself with great success. This is no ordinary praise in the judgment of those who know how difficult it is to give a happy explanation within the compass of a very few words. The book seems excellently adapted to the objects of a familiar dictionary for common schools, and as such we would earnestly recommend it to the attention of teachers.

After examining this work, it was our intention to suggest to the author, that a minor publication of the same nature would be a useful book for primary schools. We have since observed, however, an advertisement of a book which we have not seen, entitled Primary Dictionary, or Rational Vocabulary, by the author of American Popular Lessons,—which probably is a work already prepared for the purpose we have mentioned.

Outlines of Political Economy, on the plan of the Rev. David Blair. Adapted to the use of Schools in the United States of America. Boston. S. G. Goodrich. 1828.

This is a neat and cheap compend, embodying a popular view of its subject, with notes and illustrations, adapted to the minds of the young. It forms one of those elementary treatises of useful science, which tend at once to enlarge the mind and prepare it for more extensive reading at a period when knowledge may be rendered more complete by consulting the original sources of information.

An acquaintance with the elements of political science is of great moment to the whole community, and especially in a country like this, where popular sentiment is so immediately and extensively felt in its influence on national affairs. The inhabitants of other countries may deride the idea of the people at large becoming political economists, but such is literally and of necessity the case among us; and, as far as the influence of education is concerned, the question simply is, whether it is better to inspire an early taste for a decent knowledge of a science so important, or to leave the subject untouched till the period of mature years and active life.

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But there is no science which we deem important to man that we do not prefer to have associated, at least in its elements, with the growth and progress of the mind; trusting that the early impulse thus communicated will best produce an effect on the mental habits and character.

Aside from the importance of the thing itself, however, there are reasons connected with education, which would render it desirable to have this branch of knowledge introduced into the course of study in common schools. The youth of New England, if not of other parts of this country, are allowed, by the narrow plan of popular instruction, to resort to these schools from year to year, during a long and important period of life, without carrying their attention much beyond the round of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The older scholars have no inducement held out to them, by which they might be incited to extend their education, and the younger of course have none to stimulate them to a more rapid progress The period of school-going, however, is sufficiently long to admit of the introduction and study of the elements of most departments of useful knowledge; and it is one of the most decided features of recent improvement in education, that the neglect of which we speak is beginning to be felt as a serious evil, and that the spirit of reformation is effecting a revolution which, as it advances, bids fair to carry along with it the benefits of an enlarged and liberal course of education to every member of the community. Geography and history, in addition to grammar, are now taught in many of our schools. Political economy will prove a valuable accession to the list of branches; and we are happy to see, in the publication before us, a book well adapted for this purpose.

The work is on the plan of the popular school books of the Rev. David Blair of England; the prominent ideas expressed in large type, attended—when necessary—with examples and illustrations in smaller type. Questions are annexed at the foot of every page, for the convenience of the instructer and the direction of the pupil.

Select Anecdotes of Animals, accompanied with Descriptions and Engravings; intended for the instruction and amusement of Young Persons. By the Author of Evenings in Boston. Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 18mo. pp. 227.

Few subjects blend so much entertainment with the instruction which they afford as that of animal biography; and, under judicious management, none are more conducive to an early and intelligent interest in the works of creation. The present volume is a very happy selection—well fitted to inspire a taste for the department of science to which it is meant to serve as an introduction, and carefully prepared with reference to the circumstances and character of the young; the moral influence of the whole compilation having been attentively kept in view.

The cuts are remarkably good, in the great essentials of resemblance and proportion; and some of them are very creditable to the talent of the artist.

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AMERICAN

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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Arrangements made under the Imperial and Royal Governments.

Public instruction having been thus organized,* no further change was contemplated. Those who managed the affairs of the nation were satisfied, while those not in power had little to say upon the subject. But in a short time a new face was given to the government. A monarchy had been destroyed, the experiment of a republic had failed, and an empire was established to be equally soon crushed. If the republic showed a wish to avoid every thing bearing resemblance to a royal institution, the empire showed no less dislike to everything republican; and already, in the month of May, 1806, a proposal was brought forward, and a law passed, to create an *imperial university*. This law was put in force on the 17th of March, 1808, and determined the future organization of this body. When the royal authority was once more established, the university changed its title from 'imperial' to 'royal;' it suffered little alteration, however, in its internal organization. With the exception of a few partial modifications, its constitution remained the same; and, in the following account of its present state, it may be seen that the decrees of the *imperial* government have in most cases been ratified by *royal* authority. As it is now constituted, the public instruction throughout the whole kingdom is exclusively confided to the 'royal university of France,' which has the charge of the education of the people

* During the era of the Republic. See last No. Ed.

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in all its branches, and forms a body ramifying over the whole country, and subject only to the jurisdiction of a council residing in Paris, and named the 'royal council of public instruction.' It exercises a special jurisdiction over its own members, who are by oath held bound to sustain its privileges and support its honour, and who cannot accept any other office without the sanction and permission of the royal council No establishments for education, except those connected with the public service, can exist in France unconnected with or independent of the university; every school where any number of children are met together for the purpose of receiving instruction is subject to its statutes; and no one can open a school or seminary of education without being a member of the university, and holding a degree of one of its *faculties*.

The university of France is composed of twenty six academies, answering to the 'courts of appeal or royal courts.'

The gradation of instruction renders the following classification of schools necessary;—*

First. 'Faculties' which are the highest order, and destined particularly to the teaching of science and literature in their deepest branches. These alone can confer the highest academic honours: they are divided, since the decree of 1806, into five orders,—theology, law, medicine, sciences, and letters.

* To persons accustomed to identify the term university with a single establishment of instruction, such as that of Edinburgh, the term University of France may appear somewhat vague or strange; it may therefore be proper to explain more fully the whole meaning of the expression. The system of public instruction in France, as at present constituted, forms one vast body, which, like the military system of the country, has its head-quarters, if the term may be employed, in the capital, under the jurisdiction of a minister secretary of state, and his council. Though the University of France, therefore, is said to sit in Paris, it is evident that the expression means nothing more than that the supreme council, which is to take cognizance of every thing connected with the details of its administration, holds its sittings there.

As has been stated, unlike other universities, that of France includes every sort of establishment of instruction, except the special schools, and schools for the public service, from the higher faculties down to the elementary schools. Its great division, however, is into academies; and here also a little farther explanation may be necessary. These academies are situated in Paris and the other great towns of France; but it must not be supposed, because in the academy of Paris every branch of study is taught, and all the five faculties exist, that it is the same with those of the provinces. The word academy is a general denomination, but the composition of academies varies very much. They may include every form of school, as in Paris and Strasbourg, where there are faculties of theology, law, medicine, sciences, and letters, besides colleges, and institutions of every kind. They may contain only one or two of these faculties, as in Aix, where there exist merely those of theology and law; and, finally, they may consist of colleges and inferior schools, without any faculties at all, as in Cahors, Clermont, and several other towns.

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Second. Colleges, in which are taught the elements of the study of letters, history, philosophy, the mathematical and physical sciences. They are divided into three orders,—royal, communal, and private colleges.

Third. Institutions and 'boarding-houses' (*pensions*) kept by private individuals.

Fourth. Primary schools, in which are taught reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, of the French language, geography, drawing, and vocal music. They are divided into schools of the first, second, and third order, according as the instruction is more or less advanced.

By an *ordonnance* of June, 1822, Louis greatly extended the power of the 'grand master of the university,' which high office was given to his almoner, the Abbé Frayssinous. He was subsequently elevated to the still higher office of minister secretary of state for the department of ecclesiastical affairs and public instruction. At present this ministry and its duties, as respect the university, may be stated as follows;—

Head of the university of France, the minister of ecclesiastical affairs, and of public instruction, and who is *ex officio* president of the royal council. *Royal council of public instruction*, consisting of eight members, besides the president, nominated by the king. It meets at regular intervals, to take the affairs of the university into consideration, and bears the same rank in the state as the courts of cassation and of accounts, immediately after the latter of which, it takes place in public ceremonies.

The affairs of the university come under two great heads or sections, each having a president, and subdivided into several subsections.

The one section embraces all that concerns regulations, appointments, and discipline.

The other embraces the *personel* and administration. The former is divided in four *bureaux*, each having a particular class of duties to perform.

The *first bureau* is charged with the nomination of functionaries of academies and members of councils, with the power of granting *authorizations* to open institutions and boarding-houses for education, and with the management of affairs relative to catholic theology, and to the 'christian' and primary schools.

The *second bureau* is charged with the internal police of the faculties of law, medicine, sciences, and letters; with the appointments of professors and their assistants to these faculties; with all that concerns the course of study, and the granting of

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diplomas, and with the discipline of the secondary medical schools.

The *third bureau* is charged with the nomination and installation of persons as teachers or administrators in the royal colleges; with the regulations and internal discipline of these colleges; with the regulation of the salaries and pensions of those employed in them, and with the distribution of bursaries.

The *fourth bureau* is charged with the same duties as respecting the communal colleges.

The second great section of university affairs is divided into three *bureaux*.

The *first bureau* is charged with keeping the great book of accounts, (*en double partie*,) and with the general journal of university expenses; with the examination of the books of other *bureaux*, with the correspondence with the royal treasury, and with the arrangements of the accounts and budget of the university.

The *second bureau* is charged with the *materiel* of the academies and faculties, with the regulation of their expenses, and the expenses of the inspectors general, of the rector and inspectors of academies; with the keeping of the books relative to these subjects, and with the administration of the university domains.

The *third bureau* is charged with the fixed and fluctuating expenses of the royal colleges; with the distribution of their funds, and the examination and regulation of their running expenses; with the nomination and securities of house-stewards, (*œconomes*), with the books relative to current expenses; and, lastly, with the regulation of the internal expense of the *ministry*.

The university has also a treasurer, and several law-officers, for the keeping of its archives.

The office-bearers of the university are, according to their rank, as follows;—

For the Administration.—The president and counsellors of public instruction; the inspectors general of the university; rectors of academies; inspectors of particular academies; deans of faculties; provisors and censors of royal colleges; principals of communal colleges; directors of private colleges; heads of institutions, and masters of boarding-houses.

For Teaching.—Professors of faculties; almoners of royal colleges; professors and joint-professors of ditto, (*prof. agregés;*) almoners and regents of communal colleges; masters of study, (*maitres d'etudes.*)

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All these functionaries must possess a degree corresponding to their rank from one or other faculty. They are divided into three classes.

First. Into *titular office-bearers of the university*, who are the president and members of the royal council.

Second. Into *office-bearers of the university*, who are the inspectors general, rectors, inspectors of academies, deans, and professors of faculties.

Third. Into *office-bearers of academies*, who are the provisors (*proviseurs*,) censors, almoners of royal colleges, professors of the first four classes, principals of communal colleges, and directors of private colleges.

The other functionaries merely have the title of members of the university.

All office-bearers of the university are entitled, after a certain period of service, to retire with a pension granted by the royal council.

The duties of the royal council of public instruction embrace a very extended range. Being the supreme council of the university, every change that takes place in any branch of the public establishments for education must receive its approbation, and no promotion can be made without its express permission. No diploma granted by a faculty is valid without the ratification of the royal council, and no seminary for the instruction of youth can be established without its sanction; it examines books, to decide what are proper to be put into the hands of students, or be placed in the libraries of the university; and, lastly, it makes a regular annual report to government upon the condition and progress of public instruction throughout the kingdom.

The inspectors general of the university are charged with all that concerns the internal economy and regulations of the academies. Their duties consist in visiting them regularly, and seeing that they are properly administered. They are sixteen in number, divided into five orders,—two for the faculties of theology, two for those of law, two for those of medicine, nine for those of sciences and letters, one charged especially with all that concerns the administration of the academy of Paris.

The duties of these inspectors are most important, and the powers with which they are invested for the purpose of obtaining what information they may desire, are very considerable. They can summon a meeting of the council or adminstration of an academy, and demand from the members a full account of

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their proceedings; they are entitled to seek an explanation of any infringement or apparent infringement of statutes, and to propose any amelioration they may deem advisable. They make particular inquiries into the proficiency of the students and into the propriety of their behaviour; ascertain if the examinations for degrees be sufficiently strict; watch over the general discipline and internal police of the royal colleges; and observe that the teachers and office-bearers fulfil their duties in a proper manner; that the buildings are kept in good repair; that food and clothing are duly provided, and that cleanliness and health are particularly attended to. Their duty does not stop here, but extends also to the communal colleges and even to the primary schools. At their return from each inspection they must lay before the royal council, a full account of their mission, and, during the course of the year, they are expected to give any advice, that may appear proper, respecting the affairs, administration, or improvement of the academies they have visited.

Every academy is governed by a rector chosen from among the office-bearers of the university. In the academy of Paris, which holds its sittings at the ancient college of the Sorbonne, the rector is named by the king, and is, *ex officio*, counsellor to the royal council of instruction. The office of rector lasts for the space of five years; but he may be re-elected. Every rector has a council of inspectors, whose duties consist in visiting the colleges and other establishments of education. They perform, on a limited scale, the same offices as the inspectors-general on the great scale. The rector may suspend them from office; but in this case he must give his reasons for so acting to the royal council. The academic council of the rector must consist of at least ten members, nominated by the president of the royal council, on the presentation of the rector, and chosen from those functionaries who are office-bearers to the university or academies, or from among the most eminent persons of the town in which the academy is placed. This council, which is convoked by the rector, who presides in it, must meet twice a month, and oftener if necessary. Its jurisdiction extends over all the schools situated in the departments which the circle of the academy embraces; it regulates their internal economy, discipline, expenses, and administration: is judge between the students and the heads of the schools, receives the appeals of the former against any punishment inflicted on them for a real or supposed infringement of laws, and pronounces

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sentence of suspension upon those individuals who have been convicted of irregular or insubordinate behaviour, either within or without the walls of the school. During the month of July every year it receives the reports of inspectors of academies upon the state of primary instruction, and determines what teachers are deserving of the rewards given by the academic council.

One of the members of the academic council performs the duty of secretary; and every quarter a report is sent up to the royal council, to be placed among the archives of the university.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

South Carolina Female Institute.

[An establishment under the above designation is advertised to be opened this autumn, in the vicinity of Columbia, by Dr. Elias Marks. The principal is to be assisted by two female and two male teachers, by whose efforts and under his direction and superintendence an extensive and superior course of instruction is to be given. The institution is designed to afford to females advantages somewhat similar to those which are enjoyed by young men at colleges and other seminaries of the highest order. The plan, as delineated in the prospectus embodied in the pamphlet* from which the following extracts are made, seems very comprehensive. It is, at the same time, entirely practical, and thoroughly exact in its details. In these respects, as well as in the character of the introductory general views, the pamphlet is highly valuable as a treatise on education. It is the result of a long continued and profound attention to the subject, aided by the advantages of talent and experience.

We regret extremely that our limits will not admit of our copying the whole of this pamphlet, as its contents are such that we should be happy to aid their dissemination, and to give them, as far as in our power, a permanent place among the valuable resources of instruction. We must restrict our extracts,

* Hints on Female Education, with an Outline of an Institution for the Education of Females, termed the South Carolina Female Institute. Columbia. 1828.

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however, to the author's general observations, in which our readers will be able to trace much sound and original thinking, expressed in an animated, easy, and graceful style, which seems free from every fault but that of too much brilliancy.

The details of arrangement for accommodation, instruction,* and government, are planned with peculiar felicity, and are so contrived as to favour, in the highest degree, the health and the moral improvement of the pupils. But several of these topics we are compelled to omit for want of room.]

Identity of moral and mental improvement.—Does the education of the female, tend to the benefit of society? Has the knowledge, thus acquired, a direct influence on her own character and conduct, and a correspondent effect on her immediate family, and the sphere in which she moves? These are questions of no ordinary import, and on their issue, much good or evil will depend. The knowledge of our duties in life, furnishes us with a *chart*, whereby we may arrive at the performance of them. There is no question, that most of our errors in conduct, arise from defects in judgment; and it requires some cultivation, to understand, that while we are contributing to the welfare of others, we are effectually conducing to our own. An untutored being cannot be made to comprehend the force of this reasoning, which immediately fastens itself upon the conviction, of one of cultivated mind. It is, indeed, one of the errors of the vulgar and illiterate, that *goodness* and *intellect* are two distinct things.—This reference of a virtue to the head or heart, is not very comprehensible. Most of our follies and vices, proceed from a mental defect, original or adventitious. 'To do those *things which* we ought not to do, and to leave undone those things which we ought to do,' is an error in reasoning, a practical solecism. Right reasoning is, therefore, essential to our happiness. There is, undoubtedly, a connexion between all the faculties of our being. The perception of right, for instance, must precede the performance of it; otherwise, it is casual, and ceases to be a virtue. Here, then, the moral and intellectual sense are associated, or rather the latter is the efficient principle of the former. We perceive a regular and gradual succession from the earliest and simplest perceptions of right, and what is most beautiful and

* There is, we think, but one questionable point under this head, and it is the conferring of a sort of *diploma*. This may stand, however, as but a more formal name for a certificate of study and acquirements.—Ed.

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sublime in morals. The fountain of all wisdom, is the fountain of goodness, and the being who aspires to the one, must love the other. Virtue, then, is both a moral affection and a demonstrable truth; it must be understood in order to be felt and practised.

Opposition to the mental cultivation of the female sex.—We are persuaded, that on a subject of this kind, in the present enlightened age, it is the people who are the warm advocates for the cultivation of the female mind. The opposers to this, are a mere oligarchy, consisting of certain spruce philosophers, who dread, if woman be taught to think and speak rationally, she may be less useful in the various duties of domestic life. Without going back to those periods of classical prejudice and scholastic pedantry, when every adventurer, in order to prove himself a sage, was compelled to abandon the sweet domestic sphere of household comfort, we need only revert to the age of the courtly Waller, the elegant Addison, and the learned Swift. Even here, woman is regarded as the insipid gaud of her companion, man, when the latter has become vapid by intellectual exhaustion, and when vacuity has become desirable, as a relief from study. Yet, in truth; how extraordinary is it, that woman, who, in the various relations of society, exerts so wonderful an influence on its members, should be treated with so refined a courtesy, 'as to be bowed out of the very circle of humanity.' This conventional duplicity ought to be frowned down by the better part of society. An overacted courtesy, to a woman of understanding, is nothing less than insult. The mockery of homage, which the would-be *homme d'esprit* carries with him into the circle of female society, is an indirect denial of the common sense of the latter. It will be found, on investigation, that this sentiment appertains to those, who, on subjects of a more important nature, connected with the deep-toned, moral character of society, are apt to think too lightly of those things, of which the *cui bono* is not immediate and tangible. It is, in fact, a skepticism of the heart, founded upon a skepticism of the head; an uprooting of all the original germs of social virtue, and heart-felt enthusiasm—planting in their stead a meagre, cold, and cheerless philosophy; rendering the human being the creature of calculation and narrow selfish policy, and shutting out from the view, all which tends to ennoble, dignify, and exalt the human character. I dare to hazard the opinion, and to be accountable for the exceptions, that most of these beings will be found, on inquiry, to be on the side of grovel-

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ling materialists; a kind of mechanico-political economists and egotists. With these, religion and social virtue are weighed in a kind of statistical balance, and, of course, are 'found wanting.'

With enlarged and liberal minds, properly exercised and well directed moral affections, I have found but one sentiment in favour of the cultivation of the female mind; all being equally aware, that society owes its character and happiness to the most amiable and least sophisticated portion of our species.

Evils of a rapid and irregular progress in education.—We shall submit a few observations on the desultory and imperfect manner, in which the pupil is hurried through what she has been led to consider a probationary state, namely, the period allotted to instruction. It would appear from the course which most pursue on this occasion, that they deem the attainment of knowledge of so *positive* a nature, that, like other commodities in market, it can be vended and obtained in parcels to suit purchasers, just as time, convenience, and opportunity serve. Now, as education does not consist so much in any particular acquisition, as in the right ordering and training of the minds of youth, so as to impart a habit of correct reasoning, and a method of pursuing knowledge to the most advantage, the very principle sought after, by a systematic course of knowledge, is by this means lost sight of. Every thing that is valuable in character—decision, a resolution to accomplish whatever has been begun—in short, all that goes to make up the individual, and upon which her future happiness and respectability eminently depend, must be given at what may be termed the *forming* stage of life. The principles then implanted, send down their roots to the very sources of existence, and are interwoven with the moral and intellectual nature of the being. And is this the period in which parents are to vacillate, and children be left to the guidance of a capricious and ever-changing disposition? When every sail is to be set in order to catch the gale, which is to speed the youthful voyager onward, ought the season and opportunity to be lost? Ought not the interruptions to be as few as possible, and should not every occasion be seized to quicken the enthusiasm, and to point to the goal, which the youthful aspirant should ever hold in view?

An association, once established in the mind, is the more difficult of renewal, the more often it is broken. Interruptions are to be deprecated, as not only having a tendency to impair the intellectual energy, but to establish a habit in after life,

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which, whether connected with domestic or other duties, must tend to the unhappiness of the individual, and of those around her. In the first place, the positive acquisition of any good, throwing aside what some have termed the chance of contingencies, must be in a direct ratio with the quantity of industry brought into requisition, in a given time. The intervals of relaxation must be truly such. They must have a tendency to impart additional physical and moral energy. Even in their amusements, the athletæ of the ancients, kept in view the *business* to which they were trained. In like manner, the amusements of youth must be such as impart a healthful energy and enthusiasm. In this point of view, the sports of youth may be considered as useful preparations, for hours of serious and laborious study. We must therefore distinguish between those intervals of ease, so essential to elasticity of mind, and that desultory mode of pursuing a valuable object, which, as the poet says,

> ——————' gives no light,
> But rather darkness visible.'

Is it possible parents so far deceive themselves, as to imagine that those occasional glimpses of *terra firma*, will be of any positive advantage to the pupil? In labouring up the acclivity, even in our pauses we must be sure to secure what we have gained, otherwise, by the natural proneness to descent, the ball will speed downwards. It is only when the hill is fairly gained, that we can pause with some complacency of feeling.

No truth ought to be more thoroughly impressed upon the minds of youth, than that nothing excellent can be obtained without assiduous application. Next to a desultory manner of study, is the disposition, so prevalent in youth, to miscellaneous reading. Novelty in itself is so attractive, throughout every period of life, that we must take care, the love of it does not run counter to valuable purposes, which, on our first setting out, we propose to ourselves; while it may be reasonably indulged, as a useful and healthful excitement to the mind, it should be made subservient to virtuous and noble ends. It is an excellent condiment, but a bad food; and he who proposes to himself

> To lean the book 'gainst pleasure's bowl,
> And turn the leaf with folly's feather,

will find himself more frequently dipping into the bowl than into the volume. This fondness for what may be termed the *piquante* in literary matters, produces the same effect upon the mind, that

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a variety of dishes do upon the stomach, tending to vitiate and destroy that wholesome relish, which it would otherwise have for what is solid and valuable. Indeed, in all our pursuits, some one system must be laid down and pursued. Without this, the mind, like an Obidah, in endeavouring to blend the useful with the agreeable, is apt to wander forth into nooks and windings, and that which was originally proposed as a temporary digression, becomes, in a short time, the sole object of pursuit, excluding all others, so that the student is herself astonished, when she reverts to the object, which she had in view, on her setting out.

If youth, then, be naturally prone to these aberrations, how truly unfortunate is it, when the parent, instead of skilfully directing the enthusiasm to one object, suffers it to be dissipated in a thousand aimless and unprofitable employments. On this occasion, the failure of making any positive advance in knowledge, is not the greatest injury sustained. An evil of greater magnitude, influencing the individual to the latest period of her life, is, that by this means, she acquires a capricious and vacillating character. The energies of the mind become weakened, just as they are directed to many objects. But, so far from being conscious of this, the parent hails the little hot-house exuberances of imagination, proceeding from these causes, as unerring indications of a future harvest!

'A man,' says Cowper, 'who has a journey before him, twenty miles in length, which he is to perform on foot, will not hesitate and doubt, whether he shall set out or not, because he does not readily conceive how he shall reach the end of it, for he knows by the simple operation of moving one foot forward, and then the other, he shall be sure to accomplish it.' It may furthermore, be observed, that in thus putting one foot forward, and then the other, our progress is not to be estimated, numerically, by the number of steps which we have taken. It is by one step succeeding another, uninterruptedly, that we gain an accelerated speed, the preceding step giving an impetus to that which follows. It is, in fact, with the mind as with the body—nothing is so truly fatiguing as a sauntering gait.

Irregular condition of the profession of teaching.—The incapacity of teachers may be adduced as the greatest obstacle to an efficient course of female education. What are the qualifications of those who are placed at the very vestibule of society, precisely in that situation, wherein the individual takes her line of departure, and, of course, whence the least deviation on either hand, must cause her divergence from the right, to be in a

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direct ratio with the time in which she is engaged? Now, as we regard the profession of a teacher to be the most important and responsible one, whether we consider its effects upon the individual, or upon society at large, which can devolve upon any member of the human family, we *prefer* the following questions;—

Who are the teachers of youth? How have they qualified themselves for the *profession* of teaching? What have been their previous opportunities and applications? By what *criteria* are we to judge of their competency? And, lastly, who are the qualified and proper judges? We have our medical board and medical college; and in the professions of law and divinity, the competency of the candidate for public patronage is made manifest, by the occasions on which it is called forth. But the teacher is an *autocrat*, self-invested in power and dignity, and who is the hardy *stripling* that would dare call in question the *dicta* of him, whose authority is absolute in the infant realm in which he governs? In the humblest mechanical profession, some evidence of the qualifications of the individual is required; and yet, how truly extraordinary is it, on a subject of such deep and vital importance to society, as that of instruction, so little positive evidence is given or required, as it regards the ability of those who are to officiate as instructers. In city, town, or hamlet, the instructer is 'cynosure of neighbouring eyes;' his scheme of teaching includes a perfect encyclopedia of the arts and sciences, and personating in his individual self, *les maitres* of Moliere's Bourgeois Gentilhomme, he proposes to teach *le Latin, le Grec et la Philosophie.* Does the profession of teaching, differing from all others, require no previous initiation; or is it demanded of the teacher, that before he attempts to *impart*, he should have *received* instruction, and that he should understand those subjects which he professes to teach? But the fact is, throughout 'our merry land,' most of our teachers proceed as the Gil Perez of Le Sage;—'Il entreprit de m' apprendre lui meme a lire, ce qui ne lui fut pas moins utile q' a moi; car en me fesant connoitre mes lettres, il se remit a la lecture.'

Is not the inefficient course of instruction, or to speak more correctly, the negative result, to be assigned frequently to causes of this kind? This is a question, which comes home to the business and bosoms of every parent; and, we do repeat it, if in any profession assurance ought to be made doubly sure, 'that the probation have no hinge or loop to hang a doubt on,'

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it is in the qualifications of the teacher. How, then, does it come to pass, while in other professions a mediocrity of talent is by no means uncommon, in that of teaching the attainment of its professors should be of the most humble kind? In answering this question, we think we may assign the two following causes; first, the little inducement, either as it respects honour or emolument, which men of tolerable attainments have to adopt this profession; and, secondly, most of those who are qualified for the duties, propose them only as a temporary expedient for the attainment of a learned profession. Besides, to men of aspiring disposition, what inducements can be held forth to embrace a profession, which, sentimentally, all delight to honour, but which truly and practically, is placed upon a very humble foundation? This does not imply a fault in public opinion; for this *opinion*, like the physical law of fluids, indicates by a scale of just gradations, the true *level* of persons and things. It is with professions, as with sects; their reputation depends, in a great measure, upon the constituent parts which go to make up the compound. Apply this to the professions of medicine, law, and divinity, and it will be found correct. In fact, the dignity and excellency of any one profession, *do* and *will* depend upon the dignity and excellency of the majority of those persons, of whom the profession is composed. This is exemplified in the department of surgery. It is little better than a century, since the barber and the surgeon were identified in the same individual, and the physicians of Europe peremptorily refused to grant diplomas, or to admit into the class of gentlemen those who devoted themselves to chirurgical science. At the present day baronets and knights may be found in the ranks of surgeons. 'Dionysius is at Corinth,' was the sneering reply of the Lacedemonians to the threats of Philip. Milton, panoplied in all the learning of antiquity, could only be attacked, in what his contemporaries deemed his vulnerable point. Indeed it is only the other day, in a controversy between a learned professor and a noble lord, the latter being discomfited by the arguments of his opponent, in order to turn the scale of victory, was obliged, like another Scipio, to carry the war into the enemy's country, and attack him *focis et arcis*. From these and other causes, the ranks of teachers are, for the most part, filled up with what may be considered humble votaries in the lists of letters; and it must be taken for granted, that he who can enter the innermost part of the temple of science, will not be content to be 'a proselyte of the gate.'

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Plan of instruction adopted in the South Carolina Female Institute.—1. By the term education, we understand a systematic course of instruction, calculated to form an early habit of attention, and to direct curiosity to things which are essentially *useful;* taking the latter term in its widest acceptation, as embracing all knowledge, connected with the interest and happiness of the individual, and of that society of which she is to form a part.

2. We lay it down as a principle, that *this*, as other things intrinsically valuable, is obtained by the simplest means. The mode of instruction should, in all cases, be adapted to the capacity of the individual receiving it. And, to effect this, the most practical plan should be adopted, for awakening the curiosity, improving the memory, and exercising the tender reasoning powers of the child.

3. While we propose to ourselves a *system*, we must take care that this does not interfere with what we owe to the different capacities of pupils, taken *individually;* their previous advantages, powers of apprehension, reasoning, &c. We are not, therefore, to adhere to an *a priori* theory, but take our indications *empirically* from the nature of the case.

4. We are decidedly opposed to that mode of instruction, which gives a precocious development to the memory at the expense of the judgment; and conceive *that* to be the only efficient plan, which makes an equal demand upon the memory and understanding. The pupil is to have no *sinking fund* of knowledge, but should be made to render an usurious interest for every idea which is acquired. We are aware of the trite and commonplace remark, as it regards the imbecility of the mind of a child; but provided the thinking powers be not overtasked, we know no reason why habits of reflection should not be inculcated, even in the *child*. Every day's experience will convince us, that the *why* and the *wherefore*, which proceed from lisping infancy, must originate in a thinking principle; and early habits of reflection invigorate the faculty which they have a tendency to expand.

5. Care must be taken to avoid every thing like a technical, unvaried arrangement, which produces upon the mind the same effect, that monotonous sounds do upon the animal spirits, and tend to lull the judgment asleep. The thrice-told tale may proceed mechanically from the speaker, and all who have reflected upon this subject, must be aware that there is a kind of scholastic *ritual*, which may be termed the language of the lips,

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equally deceiving to teacher and pupil. Routine, therefore, where it injures the process of thinking, should, at times, be suspended. On this occasion the mind receives a concussion which is salutary. The *rule* may be repeated, and well repeated, without the scholar's annexing any ideas to it; but the *reason of the rule* is what, on all occasions, should be required. The mind of the scholar must, also, occasionally, be made to take a few steps backward, in order to spring more effectually forward. The subject matter of the present lesson cannot be well understood, if the part has not been well digested. It is, therefore, absolutely requisite, that the teacher have recourse to frequent repetition, judiciously varied; nothing fixes the fact so permanently. The mind must not be suffered passively to grope its way from one lesson to another, only intent upon the present, and never reverting to the past. The teacher must be satisfied by frequent examinations, that the scholar has retained what she has gone over, and has formed some system in her mind, from her past readings. Without this, the scholar may have gone 'through and through her book,' and not retain a vestige of what she has studied.

We are to bear in mind, too, that facts are the materials of knowledge, or rather that these *constitute* knowledge; we should, therefore, direct our attention to things, holding words as mere *indices*.

6. In instruction, the simplest principles which can be arrived at, must constitute our data. That *one* added to *one* makes two, is the basis of all numerical rules. We, therefore, proceed from *that* which we know, to *that* which we do not know; precisely as in ascending a ladder, we grasp with our hands those *rounds*, upon which, in a few moments, we are to rest our feet. The mistake of most teachers, as well as of most elementary works, intended for instruction, is—that the youthful tyro must go along with *them;* whereas, on the contrary, they are to go along with the pupil *pas a pas*. Their victories are all done upon paper, not in the field. Instead of drawing one circumvallation after another—taking the mind by regular approaches, and afterwards keeping up the line of communication, they are for gaining possession of it by a *coup de main*. But to accomplish the former, it is requisite to adapt our ideas and language to those of the child; to enter intimately into her habits of thinking and apprehending, and to endeavour to trace those associations, which the infant mind weaves at the most tender age. The pupil and teacher must speak one language, in order

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that instruction may be successfully imparted and received. Neither is the latter to go in advance of the former; their pilgrimage must be together; and so far from aspiring to reach the summit by a few vigorous efforts, they must be content to measure their joint progress, by looking back to the level from which they have ascended. It is thus, under the benignant and humanizing care of the teacher, that the head and heart of the pupil receive that direction, which influences the individual in after life.

7. The business of teaching *does not* consist in memorizing the text, or in giving technically the answers to a few questions, appended to the text-book. This intellectual *tire et carte* in a few weeks becomes so easy,

That every whipster has his trade by heart.

There must be a challenge to intellectual skill, in which the understanding and the memory are equally tasked. If scholars, when they take their respective places in their class, 'like figures cut upon a dial plate,' anticipate every question which shall be proposed, responding in the dull, monotonous chime of a cloisteral recluse, numbering the beads of her rosary; wherein consists the advantage which the teacher by his actual presence affords, over what can be derived from the text-book alone? An academy ought to be a literary gymnasium, in which the competitor, even if she fail in obtaining victory, is intellectually strengthened by the nature of the contest in which she is engaged. *That* mental collision, which gives so powerful a momentum to civilized society, is as essential in a school for children, as in a school for adults. It is by this means, only, that enthusiasm can be awakened,* and the love of literary distinction enkindled.† Without these, the whole process is dull, heavy, and plodding, tending to injure that elasticity and spring of thought, which is the very germ of improvement, and to break down the sprightly and imaginative youth into a mere mannerist.‡

8. It will constitute a primary object of *the Institute* to form such a subdivision, in the order of studies, that there will be a

* We cannot but question the truth of this assertion. A pure enthusiasm springs from the constitution of the *mind itself*, from the nature of the *subject* contemplated, or the interesting *manner* in which it is presented. Emulous feeling, kindled to 'enthusiasm,' we should dread as a very injurious influence on character. Ed.

† Is this a proper motive in a course of education preparatory to the duties of female life? Ed.

‡ *Interesting instruction* will prevent such evils. Ed.

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gradation from the simplest elementary branches to the higher departments of letters. In order to effect this, mere subordination is insufficient; a subordinate class must, as it respects the instruction imparted, be immediately preparatory to that in advance of it. The translation of a scholar into a higher class, must be but a single step in an ascending series.

9. *The teacher and pupil must understand each other.*—The faculties of the former must bend and mould themselves to those of the latter. It is not the extent of the lesson, but the understanding of it, which is the material point. A few lines well understood, will furnish a more nourishing and invigorating aliment to the mind, than a whole volume dealt out by *avoirdupois weight.* Overcome the *vis inertia* of a sluggish, dull intellect, in this way, and you have done every thing. On this occasion, the teacher is not to despair, if he do not at once succeed; the fulcrum is to be applied again and again. If after much labour on his part, he be unsuccessful, it ought to awaken him to suspect the efficacy of the means which he adopts. Perhaps by attending to the peculiar habits and modes of thinking of his pupil, he may succeed better, by adopting a different course. There is nothing esoterical in all this: the teacher must love his profession, and apply all the energies of his mind to the advancement of the objects, which ought to be peculiarly his.

THE NATURAL SCIENCES.

[The following thoughts are part of a very interesting communication in that valuable paper, Walsh's Gazette. In transcribing these paragraphs, we shall not, we hope, be understood as advocating the scientific part of education to the exclusion of the literary. We copy this article for its own merits, which our readers will perceive are of a high order, as respects both matter and manner.]

We shall here offer a few reasons for considering the natural sciences worthy of a still higher rank than they now hold, in every complete system of education. It has always appeared to us a fallacious opinion, that these sciences must yield in importance to intellectual philosophy, the mathematics, logic,

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&c. if we take for our standard the proportion in which they respectively exercise the higher faculties of the mind.

In the first place, we object to the standard. The mere cultivation of our reasoning powers contributes but little to the general improvement or happiness of mankind, and constitutes a small part of our duty to ourselves and others. The associations which so invariably give a direction of good or ill to the exercise of these powers, should never be disregarded. Our passions are to be regulated—our feelings refined—our moral perception quickened, and rendered absolute and superior over the whole man. Without this, the highest intellectual strength, original or acquired, is the most injurious and unlovely attribute of which our nature is susceptible—hateful just in proportion to its vigour. It is the blind power of the Cyclop, vast and irresistible in his might, capable of raising mountains in the hollow of his hand, but restrained by no principle from dashing them, with the malignity of a destroying angel, upon the fairest works of man's creation.

But we do not leave the point here. The natural sciences *do* furnish a most useful employment to the reasoning powers. They are removed from that spirit of rivalry and bitterness of envy, so often attendant upon the speculations of the learned; they lead to a nice observation of differences—a close inspection of slight resemblances—a caution in drawing conclusions—patience in investigation, and order and arrangement in all our habits of thought and action. These advantages can never be unimportant to rational and intelligent beings; and we know not from what other source results more conducive than these to the great interests of society, can well be derived. We do not speak of the gratification of that curiosity felt by the savage, to know something of the wonders constantly recurring around him. We allude to that higher wish to understand whatever is connected with our happiness, and so connected by a wise design of Providence, as to make that happiness dependent upon our own exertion—at once an incentive and reward to our labour. We speak of that laudable desire, so well expressed by Boccaccio,* 'to learn the reasons of things and the causes of the same, *as becomes a gentleman.*' This effectually destroys the superstition which enchains the minds of the ignorant when they look upon the operations of nature; this, too, places new worlds within the power of man, and while it affords him the

* Decameron.

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means of gratifying his multiplied wants, causes him to feel more and more his dependance upon others, and secures to him the utmost possible benefit to be derived from the social union. And what can the largest philosophy offer more than generally to elevate the views and refine the character of all.

Such is the boundless range of subjects with which it is necessary for a well informed man at the present day to be acquainted, that particular attention should be directed to those only that yield, on the whole, most pleasure and profit to the individual, and at the same time enable him to be most useful to his fellow men. Yet wide and unlimited as are the boundaries of science, our studies are intimately connected with each other. 'Etenim omnes artes quæ ad humanitatem pertinent, habent quoddam commune vinculum, et quasi cognatione quâdam inter se continentur.'* Not that there is any similarity between ethics, logic, the languages, &c. but they each and all possess their secret treasures to unfold to the inquirer; they are adapted to the mind in the different stages of its advancement, and dependant upon one another in regular gradation by the greater or less degree of application necessary to their complete mastery.

The sciences constitute a family beautifully united, with just enough of resemblance in the general outline to point out their connexion, yet infinitely diversified by individual peculiarities and characteristic differences. If the attention is once awakened to the attraction of any of them, it is awakened never to be fully satisfied. An endless thirst will be created, an intense and active curiosity excited, to become more intimately conversant with every member possessing marks, however remote, of a common origin. Nature, in her thousand forms and changes, but all of them forms of beauty and changes of loveliness, becomes the inexhaustible field of observation and study. The man whose taste has been thus formed and chastened, goes abroad into the world with a power of receiving new impressions from all around him. In realizing the expressive fable of Roman history, he finds the same communicative Egeria, still imparting in her solitary places those lessons of wisdom which she first taught to the founders of the mightiest empires of old. A familiar acquaintance with natural science has given him as it were a new sense. The same objects may indeed meet the eye of others—the same variety of hill and dale, of mountain and wild-wood—but their inquiries end where his begin. They may

* Cicero's Oration for the poet Archias.

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experience a sensation of delight—a momentary sensation, which cannot be again excited when the different arrangement and combinations of the scene have lost their power to please; but there are other beauties, less prominent but not less interesting, constantly unfolding themselves to him. Not an insect borne upon the slightest breeze of summer, not a leaf waving in the wind, not a pebble beneath his feet, without its appropriate lesson of instruction.

> 'He finds
> Tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
> Sermons in stones, and good in every thing.'

Inanimate creation speaks a language more powerful than the voice of words. The minute and the vast proclaim one creating energy. The same Being who mingles the delicate tints in the rose-bud and the tulip, or spreads the light down on the butterfly's wing, retains the planets in their orbits, and takes up the isles as a very little thing.

Physical and natural sciences are, moreover, of peculiar utility, from the very manner in which they must be investigated. They can only be pursued with success by a patient examination of facts; their object is unalterable truth, to be derived from accurate deductions, and often repeated observations. The opinions of men derived from almost every other source, change with the fluctuations of time, and there is hardly a principle of our nature which may not be disputed, even on historic ground. The interests of men and of nations, which are determined by the application of experience to given circumstances, are, and must be regarded in different lights, as those circumstances vary. Every thing of speculation will become altered, as the relations among men, dependant upon the progress of intellect, are themselves altered. But in regard to the sciences of which we now speak, the case is widely different. The results of our investigation no time can alter; their application to the necessities of our condition will be the same, centuries hence, as at the present moment. To understand the writings of antiquity, we must go back and place ourselves in the very circumstances of the author we would consult. But nature ever speaks the same intelligible voice of instruction; we can read and understand the wide-spread volume, and imbibe the feelings of the most distant age—we can extend the perusal even further than did those sages of old, who taught wisdom while walking in the midst of beautiful and diversified scenery.

Not the least of the beneficial results to be derived from these

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studies, is found in the influence which they eminently possess, to counteract the direction too often given to the higher faculties, by other pursuits. The contracting tendency of legal investigations, has been frequently noticed. Burke speaks of it in the most decided terms, alluding to a distinguished contemporary, in his speech upon American taxation. Very similar, too, was the opinion of Gibbon, in reference to the mathematics. The natural sciences, however, yield ideas abundantly proportionate to the increasing strength of all the intellectual powers. In the vast chain of being, whose extremities are beyond our reach, extending wherever the vital principle is found, in earth, in air, and ocean, there is a regular gradation from the imperfect discoveries of youth, to the sublimest attainments of maturity. The materials hence derived, are as yet almost unknown, and will receive no sensible diminution when every law regulating the various combinations of matter shall have been fully established. For even then, countless deductions are to be made from a complete knowledge of form, structures, habitudes, and uses of the infinite multitude of individuals, in the animal, mineral, and vegetable kingdoms. Still further, this constantly accumulating mass of information, is all to be brought to bear in a thousand different ways, upon the purposes of life. And should such a period ever arise, we might still recur hither to exercise our best feelings, and give truth and purity to our thoughts. This consideration is of much importance to the writer. Every scholar knows how much of the pleasure derived from reading Horace or Juvenal, and in fact any of the older poets, belongs to the commentaries and illustrations of the monks and churchmen. Some local peculiarity impedes our progress in every line, and is ever referring us to the notes for an explanation. Allusions to every thing artificial are thus generally unsafe. Independent of the fact that the habits and manners of nations are dissimilar, there will always be important differences in this respect, in the same nation, at different times. Such allusions then serve to give a direction to thought, they circumscribe the mind of the writer, and render his productions as fluctuating in interest as the objects referred to ;—they in fact subject them to the same stages of corruption, mutation, and decay. The writer thus prescribes the limits to his own fame; he raises his monument upon a restless quick-sand, towards which the tide, irregular and slow, and imperceptible in its approach, is constantly moving the whole mass of its destroying waves.

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We do not then urge the study of natural sciences, as affording a solace to disappointed ambition, or a resource in times of difficulty and trial. Nor are we offering inducements to an idle and vitiated curiosity. He who collects and arranges his *specimens* from the various kingdoms of nature, attracted by their beauty, or regularity of form and structure, is engaged in about as profitable and noble an employment as the busy child, when amusing himself with his gilded and glittering toys. The taste of such a one suggests the complacent pedantry of Lord Herbert in the picture galleries of Florence; and you look upon his nice observance of order and system, his neat cabinet and accurate descriptions, only to be reminded of the humorous catalogue of Rabelais, or the antiquarian riches of captain Grose.

It was no such trifling purpose as this that led the devoted followers of Linnæus to every part of the habitable globe. They did not dare the dangers of the trackless ocean, land upon every shore and island, from Greenland to South Africa, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific seas, influenced by such principles of action. Something more than mere enthusiasm, too, supported them amidst the changes of the elements,—exposed to the still more fearful vicissitudes of the untameable passions of every race of men. It was an irresistible thirst for knowledge—the knowledge of all that nature has not absolutely sealed up from our view. Unintimidated in their noble purpose, they cheerfully encountered death in its most terrific forms, and we take a mournful pleasure in seeking out their sepulchres in the most distant regions, and applying to them that splendid fiction of the Roman law, which rendered sacred and hallowed forever the resting places of the dead. Grateful for their high service in extending the dominions of science, we accord to them the same honour and triumph anciently given to those heroes who brought new nations within the boundaries of the Republic. We need not, like them, devote all our days to the subject, but we ought certainly to direct hither that spirit of determined and manly inquiry which leads us to leave no department unexplored, never resting satisfied till we have arrived at a general law or an ultimate fact. In so doing we cannot fail to derive a benefit equal, at least, to whatever can be obtained from any other source of information.

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FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

[From a pamphlet compiled from the Franklin Magazine, we are enabled to present to our readers the following view of this respectable and useful seminary, which has taken a distinguished place among the practical institutions of this country. The methods of instruction adopted in this school are such, we believe, as to merit the attentive consideration of all teachers who may have opportunity to become acquainted with them. They embrace the practical facilities of modern improvement, along with the thorough exactness of tuition belonging to the best of the higher order of seminaries, as taught on long established methods. The principal, Mr. Walter R. Johnson, is advantageously known as a liberal and enlightened advocate of improvement in education*; and the gentlemen who cooperate with him in his labours, are eminently qualified to render him efficient aid in their respective departments.†]

In the present state of public feeling with regard to education, no apology will be required for an attempt to aid its advancement. A constantly increasing interest in the subject, forbids us to suppose that the science and practice of instruction, can remain stationary, while other arts and sciences are advancing. Pursue what other trade or profession we may, the art of developing mind cannot be neglected. We owe it to conscience—to patriotism—to humanity—to posterity, that the generation now rising to enjoy the blessings, and sustain the responsibilities, of civil and religious liberty, should not be left to grope in the darkness of ignorance, and thus to disgrace the institutions which their fathers have founded. Indeed, a conviction, that all the substantial interests of society are dependant on the diffusion of learning, is rapidly pervading every class of American citizens.

Aware that no advantages of soil, of climate, of commercial facilities, of wealth acquired, or wealth transmitted, can compensate for a deficiency of moral and intellectual culture, they are, with different degrees of zeal, endeavouring to establish and improve their systems of universal education. The *industrious* are sure of profit, and the *independent* of pleasure, from

* See his pamphlet on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning.

† See Professor Bolmar's introductory books for the study of French, mentioned in a former number.—Ed.

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the same source. The private citizen finds his highest happiness in refined and polished society. The statesman feels it to be his greatest glory to make and administer laws among a people of whom every individual can appreciate his merits. In such a community, wealth confers no privilege but that of being foremost in acts of beneficence, and poverty will neither be offered nor received as an apology for acts of knavery and duplicity.

Would a town, city, or state, possess weight in the scale of public estimation? it must be derived, mainly, from the spirit which presides over public instruction. Wealth cannot purchase the desired influence. Arrogant pretensions will never be long accepted in place of *real* intellectual worth.

A few great men, may, it is true, do much towards conferring respectability on their state, or district; but unless they move amidst men of similar character, they serve, like the columns at Persepolis, only to make the surrounding desolation more frightful. It does not particularly delight the eye of a republican to behold a few pyramids and palaces, amidst a million of hovels; and how can it be more consonant with his feelings, to contemplate ignorance, vice, and wretchedness, yielding a blind homage to that greatness, which, perhaps, becomes apparent, only by a comparison with what is absolutely mean and diminutive.

The republic claims a right to all the effective talent which can possibly be elicited, from among every class of her sons, and which can aid to sustain the dignity and consistency of her character.

Nor are we without *external* motives for maintaining the cause of universal education. Distant nations look to America, to set the example of abolishing those odious *monopolies* in learning, which have for ages closed the career of generous competition against ninety nine hundredths of mankind. The feudal times saw learning, as they saw wealth and titles, entrenched behind barriers which it was profanation for any but the privileged orders to approach.

To impose more effectually on a half enlightened age, learning assumed her costly trappings, her pomp and circumstance, her sounding titles, and a certain supercilious behaviour.

The scholastic wisdom of those times consisted, in a great measure, of a kind of knowledge, for which common men could have no manner of use, and which was often but a mere matter of pride to its actual possessor. It is justly expected for *Ameri-*

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ca, that she will banish the childish follies of learning, and retain only its wisdom; that keeping pace with the improvements of the age, she will apply the excellences of every method, the useful parts of every system, in the construction of that which is intended to diffuse the highest degrees of usefulness and happiness.

Leaving the politicians to wrangle about the '*American system*' of internal policy, we may venture to lay down some principles for the formation of a *republican system of education*, such as reason demands, and experience has already justified. On this subject we may reasonably anticipate that the nation will form but one party. As all are satisfied that republican government, is, in itself, a blessing; and not only abstractly good, but *practically* better than any of the forms of European despotism, whether absolute or limited; so all should unite to establish and foster a system of education, consistent with the character of a self-governed people.

Such a system must be founded on the principle of equal rights, and equal obligations;—equal rights in those who are to be educated, and equal obligations on those who are to furnish the pecuniary means. To realize this principle in its full extent, *public* institutions, adequate to the wants of every class in society, must be established in every part of our country.

In defect of such institutions, those seminaries which are established by societies, or individuals, ought to approach as near as possible to the character of public schools, both in the liberality of their terms, the wide extension of their advantages, and their subjection to the influence of public opinion. Differences between parents, in respect to fortune, trade, profession, religious sect, or political party, ought to make no difference in the kind or degree of early instruction offered to their children. Economy of *time* and *money* is a primary requisite in every system of education intended for general adoption. Every device which can aid the attainment of this desirable end, must therefore be introduced. In the business of teaching, the greatest division of labour which is consistent with strict economy, ought to prevail. To promote economy, to excite emulation, to give each student an opportunity to compare himself with many others, and by a strict classification according to advancement, to prevent the retardation of one, through the dulness of another, a school must be more numerous than could be conveniently instructed by a single individual, and must be provided with a greater or less number of teachers, according to the

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greater or less number of branches to be embraced, and to the higher or lower rank which it is to hold in the scale of institutions. The greatest practical subdivision of classes is desirable. Its methods of instructing and governing ought to embrace whatever is most efficient and useful in all the systems of education which have been promulgated. Self improvement by active exertion is ever to be preferred to the passive reception of knowledge from others. Hence the strongest incitements to *voluntary* study should be offered to the students.

The foregoing are a few of the leading maxims which were followed in the formation of an institution connected with the Franklin Institute, and of which it is proposed to give hereafter a rather more detailed account, than has yet appeared.

The following remarks extracted from an address of the committee of instruction, published at the time of opening the establishment, further illustrate its design.

'In forming this school, it was the aim of the board, to give to the sons of tradesmen, and other citizens in moderate circumstances, the same advantages of education, which have heretofore been almost exclusively enjoyed by the children of the rich. In this country, where permanent distinctions of rank are inconsistent with the spirit of our republican institutions, it is impossible to tell, from the situation of the parent, what may be the destiny of the child. The board have therefore selected a course of studies, such as experience has proved to be the most useful for the advancement of the pupil in future life, and such as is universally selected by the enlightened parent, whose wealth enables him to make a choice for his son. Against the adoption of such a system, the only rational objection that can be urged, is the expense of time and money which it generally involves. But the modern improvements in education, and particularly the plan of monitorial or mutual instruction which is introduced into the High School, have nearly removed these difficulties.'

It is proposed to give, in a few essays, an exposition, as brief as the subject will admit, of the course of study, system of instruction, practical results of the different methods of teaching, and of such other points as have constituted the subjects of frequent inquiry with those persons who have applied for information respecting the institution above mentioned.

The *principles* which ought to serve as the basis of a practical, republican system of education, combining useful with liberal pursuits, have already been stated. Before proceeding to

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give an account of the school in the establishment and management of which these principles have been *exemplified*, it may not be improper briefly to exhibit the views and purposes of the institution, of which this school is a department.

The society bearing the name of the 'Franklin Institute,' was established 'for the purpose of promoting the mechanic arts, and of improving the *condition*, *character*, and *prospects* of the industrious class of society by whom they are exercised.'

The first attempt to establish a society for this purpose was made in November, 1822, but without success. In December, 1823, a meeting of a few gentlemen was held, and in February, 1824, a *public* meeting was called for the same object. At the *latter*, the constitution was adopted. The first step taken by the society, towards accomplishing its purposes, was the establishment of lectures. These were commenced in April subsequent to the organization of the society, were miscellaneous in their subjects, and were, at first, voluntary and gratuitous. During the winter of 1824, regular professors of natural philosophy, of chemistry, and of architecture, delivered courses of lectures on their respective subjects. A school for drawing, and another for mathematics, were opened for two quarters during the same season. In November, 1825, the means of instruction were still further increased, by the addition of a course of lectures on natural history.

Such were the advantages for instruction afforded by the Franklin Institute, previously to the 1st of January, 1826, at which time the Franklin Journal was established. The value of this vehicle of information to the adult mechanic, is sufficiently obvious; and the extensive circulation which it has attained, evinces that its importance is felt and acknowledged. So far as the instruction of *men* was to be effected, the Institute had not left scarcely anything to be desired; but the '*condition*, *character*, and *prospects*' of the industrious classes of society, must be still far from enviable, if they were left without the means of accomplishing what is dearest to every intelligent parent's heart, the early and thorough education of his children. This end can be but partially and imperfectly attained by lectures. The latter may, in certain branches, be rendered highly useful as *subsidiaries*, but as *substitutes* for lessons, for duty, recitations, examinations, and that system of responsibilities by which the talents of the teacher are made to act on the mind of the pupil, they are nearly powerless. Aware of this fact, and sensible of the paramount importance of youthful education,

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some of the leading members of the Institute early expressed a desire, that a school should be established for imparting instruction in the various branches of an elementary and useful education. The execution of this design was unavoidably delayed longer than that of the other plans of instruction, partly by the want of proper accommodations, and partly by the necessity of more maturely digesting the details of the system. On the completion of the Society's Hall in the summer of 1826, the former of these obstacles was removed, and the timely exertions of the committee of instruction, surmounted the latter. A few hundred dollars were collected by subscription, to provide the necessary furniture, and the school went into operation on the 4th of September, 1826.

It may be proper here to remark, that in addition to its influence in improving the 'condition and prospects' of the industrious classes of society, by its lectures, its Journal, and its schools, the Institute has, since 1824, held annual exhibitions of manufactures, to which the citizens of the United States have been invited to send the products of their skill and ingenuity, and have been severally rewarded according to the decision of able and impartial tribunals. All these objects have been prosecuted simultaneously, and without any improper interference of one with another. The mathematical school was the least numerously attended ; and since the establishment of the High School, its purposes are so fully answered there, that its continuance has not been deemed necessary.

Though avowedly established for the promotion of certain interests, this society is by no means narrow and exclusive in its spirit. It does not consist entirely of mechanics. Many citizens in various walks of life, have enrolled themselves among its members, from a thorough conviction of its usefulness, and from a hearty concurrence in its design of promoting the diffusion of useful knowledge, and the advancement of the mechanic arts.

Among the subscribers to the Journal, and to the courses of lectures, no less than on the registers of the schools, will be found the names of many of our most wealthy and respectable citizens. The large and liberal views of the philosopher whose name the society has adopted, are happily exemplified, both in the nature of its exertions, and in the spirit with which they are prosecuted. Franklin never forgot the intellectual and moral part of human nature, while pursuing those studies which pertain to the physical world. The friend, alike of learning, of

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liberty, and of the arts, he endeavoured to bring into harmonious intercourse the different orders of society; and he doubtless felt that the most effectual mode of attaining his purpose, was to unite their efforts during the period of early education. Hence his zeal in the cause of *public* institutions for education. Hence his donations for the bestowment of premiums on meritorious scholars; and hence his exertions for the formation of literary societies among the young, to facilitate the interchange of thought, and the early development of merit, in every rank.

Under those happy political institutions which Franklin and his compatriots have transmitted to the present generation, it is in vain to think of limiting the ambition of youth to those precise objects which their fathers have pursued. The vigorous mind and elastic spirits of the young *American*, are constantly prompting him to new enterprises, to fresh pursuits, and to higher objects of ambition. The character of the society is in accordance with this spirit of the American community.

It may readily be inferred from the slight sketch above given, of the Franklin Institute, how far its operations have tended to promote the true interests of society; and from the following delineation of the course of study pursued in the High School department, an opinion may be formed respecting its adaptation to advance the same interests, to forward the general purposes of the Institute, and to realize the wishes of Franklin, and other patrons of learning and the useful arts.

The annual payment of *three* dollars is the only pecuniary consideration required to constitute a member of the society, with the right of voting at elections, and of attending all its public lectures, and exhibitions of manufactures.

Apprentices and other lads are allowed to attend all the lectures of a season, by the payment of *one* dollar each. Tickets for ladies are issued at the price of *two* dollars each.

The annual subscription to the Journal is *five* dollars.

The fee for instruction in the drawing school is *four* dollars per quarter.

In the High School the price for all branches is *seven* dollars per quarter.

The above charges have hitherto been found adequate to obtain distinguished talents for the service of the society, and should the public continue duly to appreciate and reward the efforts which are here made to render knowledge accessible to all classes, little doubt can be entertained that the same talents may still be retained for similar purposes.

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	DAILY EXERCISES.	
FIRST QUARTER. *Remarks.* The academical year commences on the first Monday in September, and continues twelve weeks. The second quarter commences immediately after the close of the first, and continues for the same length of time, and so on through the year.	1. Arithmetic. *Colburn's Sequel.* 2. Geography, with the use of Maps. *Worcester.* 3. Writing from dictation, defining the words, and analyzing the sentences written. *Murray's Grammar and Exercises. Walker's Dictionary.* 4. Greek Grammar and Delectus. *Valpy.* 5. Latin Grammar. *Adams, Gould's edition.* 6. French. *Porney's Syllabaire, and Perrin's Fables.* 7. Linear drawing. *Fowle.*	1. Elocution. *American First Class Book.* 2. Pronunciation of French. *Fables.* 3. Exercises in oral composition.
SECOND QUARTER. The hours of attendance are from 9 till 12, in winter, and from 8 till 11, in summer, for the forenoon; and from 2 till 5, in the afternoon. On Wednesdays and Saturdays but 4 hours are employed.	1. Arithmetic, (continued.) *Colburn.* 2. Geography, (continued.) *Worcester.* 3. Correction and analysis of sentences containing false syntax. *Murray's Exercises.* 4. Greek Grammar, and Greek Delectus, (continued.) 5. Latin Grammar, and *Jacobs'* Latin Reader. 6. French. *Wahnostrocht's Grammar. Fables.* 7. Drawing *mechanical implements* in outline.	1. Elocution, (continued.) *Class Book.* 2. French pronunciation. 3. Oral composition.
THIRD QUARTER. A semi-annual examination is held at the end of the second quarter. All scholars are required to attend the examinations.	1. Arithmetic, (continued.) 2. Geography, (continued.) 3. Exercises in correcting false punctuation. *Murray.* 4. Greek Reader. *Jacobs'* Grammar, (continued.) 5. Latin Reader and Grammar, (continued.) 6. Telemachus. *Bolmar's edition.* 7. Drawing, (continued.)	1. Elocution. *Class Book.* 2. Stenography. *Gould.* 3. Composition from memory, *descriptive pieces.* 4. French pronunciation.
FOURTH QUARTER. The year closes with the annual examination, about the first of August. During that month the school is closed, no charges are made, and no instruction is given. The other holidays are New Year's, 22nd of February, three days at Easter, 1st of May, 4th of July, and from Christmas till the Monday following.	1. Algebra. *Colburn.* 2. Ancient Geography. *Worcester's Atlas.* 3. English Prosody. Exercises in Poetry, written from dictation. *Milton.* 4. Greek Reader, (continued.) 5. Latin Reader, second part. *Jacobs.* 6. Telemachus, (continued.) French phrases. *Hentz.* 7. Spanish. *Josse's Grammar.* 8. Drawing of Maps.	1. Elocution. *Class Book.* 2. Stenography. 3. Compositions, (continued,) *narrative pieces.* 4. Spanish pronunciation.

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SECOND YEAR.

	DAILY EXERCISES.	WEEKLY EXERCISES.
FIRST QUARTER. *Remarks.* No scholar is compelled to study all the branches assigned for any particular part of the course. Much less is he allowed, when his course has been selected, to make capricious changes.	1. Algebra, (continued.) *Colburn.* 2. Ancient Geography, (continued.) Use of globes. 3. Greek Reader, (continued.) 4. Latin Reader, second part, (continued.) *Jacobs.* 5. Telemachus. Written exercises in French. 6. Spanish. *Traductor Espanol.* Phrases. 7. German. *Shade's Grammar.* 8. Drawing. Elements of landscape.	1. Elocution. *Walker's Rhetorical Grammar.* 2. Natural Philosophy, illustrated by lectures and experiments. *Conversations, Jones' edition.* 3. Exercises in Greek. *Neilson.* 4. Composition, (continued.)
SECOND QUARTER. The exercises for Wednesdays and Saturdays are, in general, different from those of the other four days in the week, and are therefore classed under the head of *weekly exercises.*	1. Algebra, (continued.) 2. Use of globes, (continued.) 3. Greek Testament. *(Four gospels.)* 4. Latin Reader, (continued.) 5. Historical Reading, in French. *Peter the Great.* 6. Translations from Spanish, (continued,) and Spanish exercises. 7. German Reader. Grammar, (continued.) 8. Landscape drawing, (continued.)	1. Rhetorical Grammar, (continued.) 2. Natural Philosophy, (continued.) 3. Greek exercises, (continued.) 4. Composition, with the study of its elementary principles. *Appendix to Murray's Grammar.*
THIRD QUARTER. The pupil, on entering the school, must have learned reading, writing, English Grammar, and the first rules of Arithmetic. A knowledge of Geography is also very desirable.	1. Geometry. *Legendre.* 2. Ancient History. *Worcester's Elements,* and charts. 3. Græca Majora, first volume. *Dalzel.* 4. Ovid. Latin Prosody. *Adams' Grammar.* 5. French, (continued.) 6. Spanish, (continued,) with written exercises. *Josse* or *M'Henry.* 7. German, (continued.) 8. Drawing, (continued.)	1. Mythology. *Tooke.* 2. Rhetorical Grammar, (continued.) 3. Natural Philosophy, (continued.) 4. Latin exercises. *Dana's Latin Tutor.* 5. Compositions on themes selected.
FOURTH QUARTER. The text books of the school must be possessed by each scholar. The extent of the school, and the number of branches taught, render changes and varieties inadmissible.	1. Geometry, (continued.) 2. Ancient History, (continued.) Book-keeping. *Hitchcock.* 3. Græca Majora, (continued.) 4. Virgil. *Gould's edition.* 5. French poetry. 6. Spanish, (continued.) 7. German, (continued,) with written exercises. 8. Drawing from models.	1. Mythology, (continued.) 2. Rhetorical Grammar, (continued.) 3. Natural Philosophy, (continued.) 4. Latin exercises, (continued.) 5. Composition.

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THIRD YEAR.

	DAILY EXERCISES.	WEEKLY EXERCISES.
FIRST QUARTER. *Remarks.* Before a scholar can be entitled to instruction in any branch, his fee for the quarter must be paid, for which a *receipt* is given, but no bills are sent out for collection.	1. Trigonometry, with application of Algebra to Geometry. 2. Modern History. *Worcester's Elements.* 3. Græca Majora, (continued.) 4. Virgil, (continued.) 5. Translations from English to French. 6. Double translations in English and Spanish. 7. German, (continued.) 8. Drawing from machinery. Laws of perspective.	1. Mythology, (continued.) 2. Rhetorical exercises. 3. Explanation of the structure and uses of machinery. 4. Latin exercises. 5. Composition.
SECOND QUARTER. Each recitation occupies about *forty five* minutes.	1. Surveying and Mensuration. 2. Modern History, (continued.) 3. Græca Majora, second volume. Greek Prosody. 4. Cicero's Select Orations. 5. Conversations in French and Spanish. 6. German, (continued.) 7. Drawing from subjects in Natural History.	1. Elocution, (continued.) 2. Chemistry, with lectures and experiments. 3. *Elegantiæ Latinæ.* 4. Composition.
THIRD QUARTER. The lectures on natural philosophy, chemistry, &c., pertaining to this course, are entirely distinct from the public lectures before the Institute, and are commonly given after the morning exercise on Wednesdays.	1. Astronomy. *Gummere.* 2. Political Economy. *Conversations.* 3. Sallust and Horace. 4. Græca Majora. Written translations from Greek. 5. Original compositions in French and Spanish. 6. Conversations in German. 7. Drawing, (continued.)	1. Rhetoric. 2. Chemistry, (continued.) 3. Elegantiæ Latinæ. 4. Composition.
FOURTH QUARTER. It is not expected that the whole of the above course can be completed in three years by any but scholars of the very best capacity, and most exemplary diligence. A few individuals now in the school are in a fair way to accomplish it.	1. Astronomy, (continued.) Calculation of Eclipses. 2. Constitution of the United States, and of the State of Pennsylvania. 3. Tacitus. 4. Græca Majora. Modern Greek. 5. French and Spanish composition, (continued.) 6. Natural History. 7. Architectural drawing.	1. Rhetoric. 2. Chemistry. 3. Elegantiæ Latinæ. 4. Composition.

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REVIEW.

Observations on the establishment and direction of Infant Schools; being the substance of a Lecture delivered at the Royal Institution, May, 1826. By the Rev. Charles Mayo, LL. D. Fellow of St. Johns College, Oxford. London. 1827. 8vo. pp. 24.

The increase of infant schools, since their commencement in 1819, has been so great, and their success so perfect, that their practicability or their usefulness is no longer problematical. They are already classed among the improvements of the age, and make a new era in the history of education. Men of the highest attainments, and sustaining, with distinguished honour, the first and best offices of responsibility, are giving them their patronage, in various forms of encouragement. Among those whose names are already identified with the interests of improvement, is the distinguished Henry Brougham, whose talents and philanthropy, claim the higher admiration, from the circumstance of being exerted in the establishment of infant schools. By his agency, and that of others imbued with the same spirit, more than two hundred of these schools have been opened in England; and their number is still increasing. Within the last two years, they have been introduced into this country. In Philadelphia, there are now three schools of this character in successful operation—two in New-York—in Boston, two have been opened within the last three months—and others, in many of our towns and cities. In all, the happiest results have been developed. Enough has been done to suggest the highest anticipations.

In the pamphlet above named, the writer takes a clear and rational view of the *necessity*, the *practicability*, the *processes*, and *purposes* of these institutions. Some of these views, attended by remarks, we propose to introduce into this article;—commencing with the first paragraph of his observations.

'An Infant school, assembled in an airy and commodious apartment, provided with pleasing materials of instruction, and under the able superintendence of a kind and judicious master, presents a scene, which can scarcely fail to interest and delight the visiter. But duly to appreciate the blessings it conveys, he should be able to compare the happy, docile, affectionate infants with the quarrelsome little beings which throng the courts and alleys of a densely populated city. It is delightful to view the remedial pro-

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cess in operation; but to ascertain its value we must acquaint ourselves with the virulence and inveteracy of the disease.

'Let the benevolent inquirer into the condition of the poor visit those quarters where it assumes its ordinary features:—in what state will he find the children?—The parents too busily engaged in their laborious avocations, to tend them, during the day, suffer them to wander through the street, exposed to all the danger of a crowded city, and instructed by the older children in the arts of pilfering and gambling, and in all the demoralizing practices of low-bred idleness;—Or, if confined within the precincts of their wretched dwellings, they must be consigned to the care of an elder sister, (whose tender age rather demands protection,) who, untrained to patient forbearance, and incapable of prudently exercising authority, now vents ill temper in blows, that irritate without subduing, now stimulates, by ill timed indulgence, the perverseness which she vainly tries to soothe. Meanwhile, to no one is instruction given; and the very advantages which benevolent institutions have provided for the elder children are frequently lost to them, through the necessity of their watching over the younger. Thus, in the ill arranged machinery of their domestic life, wheel impedes wheel, and defects in one part waste the power, which would have set another in motion. Were an infants' school to offer its timely aid, the mother, liberated from that charge with which she encumbers the elder child without altogether relieving herself, might pursue domestic employments without interruption, or go out to labour without anxiety; the elder children might avail themselves of the advantages of the primary schools; and the younger ones be sheltered, instructed, and delighted, in the public Nursery.

'If the influence of our primary schools is but too often ineffectual for moral and religious culture, may it not be attributed, in part, to the long preoccupation of the field of contest? The correction of bad habits is proverbially more difficult than the formation of good ones; the eradication of vicious propensities infinitely more arduous than the implanting of right dispositions. But the power of evil has for years been gathering strength, before ordinary means of public education are directed against it. Yet, surely, the Serpents that invade the cradle of infancy are as formidable as the Hydra that attacks the manhood of life. Let charity commence its Herculean toils at an earlier period; then will its first victories be its best omen of future triumphs. Benevolence has long appreciated the value of that field which the *childhood* of the poor has opened to its cultivation; *infancy* is a rich but unclaimed waste: it is a soil capable, when watered with the dews of heaven as well as cultivated by the hand of man, of producing the fairest blossoms, and bearing the richest fruits. If he who causes two blades of grass to grow, where only one has grown

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before, has been thought worthy the patriot name, with what title shall he be honoured under whose hand, not unblest, the wilderness of the infant mind is made to blossom as the rose; and these, the waste places of human life, to bloom with moral beauty, and teem with moral fragrance. The christian philanthropist has no need to lament that the victories of his predecessors have left him no room for triumph; here opens to him a fair and fertile world, and a crown that fadeth not away is the guerdon of *the fight*.'

These thoughts, so beautifully expressed, place infant schools in their proper light to the public observation. The real circumstances of the poor—we might add of parental instruction and discipline among the rich—need only to be fairly and fully exposed, to suggest the necessity of their improvement. Elementary instruction would then assume a more rational and moral character.

After a refutation of objections to infant schools—that 'their influence in the formation of character is but transient'—that they 'oppose the order of nature, which assigns to the mother the first instruction and care of her child'—that 'the separation of mother and child is likely to diminish parental tenderness and filial affection'—that they 'will injure the health of the children'—and that 'the absence of the children is the removal of a useful restraint on the conduct of the parents'—Dr. Mayo proceeds to their *objects* and *processes*;—

'*An infants' school then must be an institution essentially moral; that is, it must seek moral ends by moral means.* Its first *aim* must be the development of moral and religious sentiments, and the inculcating of the elementary truths of religion. The *means* which it employs are the influence of the master grounded on the affections and esteem of the children, and the mutual sympathy of the children themselves. Subordinate to this *moral* end, is the development of the *intellectual faculties* and the imparting of useful *knowledge;* and lastly the improvement of the *physical powers*, and the *bodily health* follow in the train of other advantages. *Wheresoever the moral end is not regarded as the primary object, wherever the acquisition of knowledge is practically made of the first consequence, there a fundamental deflection from its principles has appeared. Wheresoever reliance is placed on other human means than the moral influence of the master on the children, and the moral influence of the children on each other, there the infants' school system is abandoned.*'

The author continues:—

'Let, then, the friends of infancy clearly define to their own minds the *object* they have in view. If it be to provide comforta-

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ble shelter to the children, and thus relieve their parents from a heavy burden and incumbrance; then may they content themselves with procuring a spacious apartment, an ample play-ground, a few pictures to amuse the mind, and a few swings, and so forth, to exercise the body. Any cheerful, good-tempered, and, if I may be allowed the term, motherly female, may be appointed to preside; and thus will their benevolence have provided, if not an infant's *school*, a *refuge* for infants.

'If, in addition to this, they would cultivate upright principles and kindly feelings, and a general respect for religion, such as in after life may restrain from wickedness or barbarity, then must they engage a person capable of exercising a gentle but powerful influence over the character of children, vigilant to observe each moral trait, and judicious in availing himself of each little incident or casual remark.

'If higher still their object—to rest these principles on a surer basis, to sustain them with purer motives, and to animate them by loftier hopes; if it be their aim to kindle gratitude to God, and love to the Redeemer, and to throw the purifying and softening influence of christian sentiment over the heart; then must they seek, and diligently seek, for one who, deeply imbued with Christian affections, and feeling alive to the importance of his work, will zealously devote himself to this interesting and important avocation.'

It is only in the latter of these forms, that the infant system of instruction can fully accomplish its *purposes*, and shed its redeeming influence upon the mind and heart of infancy. Low and exclusive aims can only produce partial results. The formation of character,—the great purpose of all education,—is too sacred a thing to be committed to the ignorant and unskilful. The formation of mind and heart demands the power and skill of intelligence and sympathy. To fill the young *mind* with accurate and rational ideas—the *imagination* with happy and holy forms—tho *heart* with pure and generous feelings—to form and moralize the *associations*—to take the *physical* being—the infant—and bring out in all their prominence, symmetry, and beauty, the internal features of its nature, and make it an *intellectual* and *moral* being, is a task worthy the sublimest intelligence—demanding the possession of the purest and fullest resources—a knowledge of the whole infant being.

On this point, we apprehend, vague and incorrect notions too often are entertained—notions which have their origin in a low and mistaken estimate of education—its *means* and *purposes*. Infant education, particularly, is exposed to general misapprehension.

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The *simplicity of the apparatus and instruction* essential to the successful operation of infant schools often leads to the conclusion that they possess but little power. They are so unassuming in their character, their results are so imperceptible and remote, that they are liable to be classed among the little things of the day. The same error which pervades the judgment on other subjects finds its way into this. Immediate, obvious, large results are anticipated. The simple and the gradual processes of nature, are unheeded in the search for the imposing, complex, and rapid operations of art. There is much perversion of judgment in this. Where there is no formal exhibition, no complex system of operation, no ostentatious display, there, it is too often thought, can be no advancement, no valuable results. This unfortunate association is an obstacle in the way of introducing a rational system of infant instruction to public acceptance. It will prejudge a system of this kind. Without the favourite mechanism, formal recitation, words without ideas, the inference will be, that little or nothing is done.

But the *object* of education, infant as well as adult, is but partially obtained, by imparting a facility and correctness in the utterance of letters and words. It aims at this, it is true; but it aims likewise at something more. *Its purpose is to form mind, heart, character: to make its subjects wise, and happy, and to make them so by a simple, natural, and rational process.* It does not anticipate nature. It does not look for a premature development of results and of character. As in the physical world, these are produced by gradual and almost imperceptible advances, so should they be in the moral and intellectual. Throw around the young mind the influence of an intellectual atmosphere—around the young heart, a moral one; and they will inhale its spirit. The education of influences will achieve their advancement. Their characters will be moulded by them. They will become what these influences, operating upon their minds and feelings, shall make them; and the great purpose of the instructer should be to arrange these influences, and modify and direct, with the skill of a master, these effects upon the subjects of his charge, and impart to them energy and life.

We give one more extract from the pamphlet:—

'Let us suppose a suitable building and play-ground provided, and a competent person appointed to carry on the work of education. Let us suppose the district visited, the people of the neighbourhood made acquainted with the advantages offered to their little ones, and invited to bring them clean, at least, and tidy, if

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possible, to the school. What a group of disorderly, untrained beings! *How* shall the master reduce this moral chaos to order? *How* shall he draw forth the light of intelligence from under the covering of ignorance and mental inactivity? His *first step* must be to win the obedience of the children, but through their will, and not against it; for this purpose he must avail himself of the power of sympathy, which incites to imitation. Whatever he wishes the children to do, he must commence by doing himself, throwing a cheerful kind-hearted animation into every act; attention is soon caught; the most lively of the little group almost involuntarily copies the teacher's gestures, or repeats his words, another and another fall in, till the whole school are in motion, or in chorus; and the work is begun. The great art of the teacher throughout the whole plan is to *lead*, rather than *drive;* a few children more susceptible than the others soon catch the tone he wishes to communicate, and a moral as well as a physical momentum is given to the school. Thus, when the teacher has gained some influence over the children by leading their several exercises, they naturally look up to him for encouragement, and are delighted with his affectionate commendations. Should he hear an oath or indecent expression, he gives signs of being grieved and shocked; and the little offender, who has sinned without knowledge, is, without knowledge, but merely through feeling, diverted from his practice. Soon what shocks the master shocks the whole school; so powerful does this sentiment become, that the blasphemies or obscene expressions of a new-comer have in an instant arrested every amusement, till the dreadful fact has been notified to the teacher, and the child, pitied for its misfortunes, has been led silent and appalled to its place.

'One of the first aims of the teacher will be to foster a spirit of *mutual kindness* in the school. His own affectionate manner towards all, will predispose them to this state of feeling; as he soothes the sorrows of the little ones, he teaches the elder by his example to be tender-hearted to the younger. If a quarrel disturb the general harmony, he separates the little combatants; giving a hand to each, he leads them down the school, and, diverting their attention from each other, by his kindness, soon dispels their animosity, and having restored the sunshine of good humour to their minds, prevents by separation the recurrence of the evil. Sometimes, when ill humour and perverseness manifest themselves in a child, he confides him to one a little older than himself, who, calmly and affectionately pacing round the room with him, brings him back restored at last to serenity and good temper.

'When the children are trained to order, docility, and mutual kindness, when the *moral influence* of the master is established, and a *moral tone* has been given to the school, *then, and not till*

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then, the work of intellectual development should begin. It is one of the most delicate points in education, to maintain the necessary degree of *order*, without trenching on that *liberty* which is essential to the formation of character, and the improvement of the mind. The difficulty is much increased, if intellectual vivacity be excited in the pupil before a due degree of moral influence be possessed by the teacher. It becomes then an important principle of infant school education, that *moral sentiment precede step by step intellectual development, and that the teacher call not forth more life than he feels himself able to control.*'

Infant schools, then, are too powerful in their results to be left to take the modification which the ignorant and unthinking might give them. Their *aim* is high: it is heavenly. They should be unshackled by unnecessary form: they should be simple and natural agents on character. They should act not only on the surface of being, but be made to penetrate the internal recesses of the mind and soul;—to awaken, invigorate, and direct all the energies of infant nature. They must *form* character for the pure, and *reform* it for the impure. They must deal with the elements of character. They must aim at laying broad and deep the basis of character, that the superstructure—the work of the individual—may assume the beauty and symmetry of intelligence and virtue. They must set out the individual in the right course, and put a light in his hand which shall guide him in his advances. They must invest him with a power, by which he shall feel himself able to seek out his own happiness—the power of reason, of mind, of principle.

To effect all this, depends upon the selection of *means* suited to the element of the beings on whom we are called to act. Their modes of thought and feeling must be attentively studied, and the means of instruction adapted to these modes, or rather these *modes* are themselves the means. They are means of nature's own appointment, processes of her own adjustment. The order of intellectual and moral advancement must determine the order of instruction—it is instruction itself. The work of the instructer, therefore, consists in endeavours to awaken, invigorate, and encourage, rather than to prescribe exclusive courses of thought. He is to look to the *child* to see what is to be done, rather then to his *book* or *system*. The child is the book: the order of its mental operations is the system. Let him study these; and he will be successful. Let him follow out the impulses, the thoughts, the relations of the child's mind and heart, in their own simple and natural expressions,

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directing them to the attainment of happiness, and his teaching will be what heaven designed it to be, an aid to prepare the child to aid himself.

For *subjects* for instruction he need not go far. He need not search for books nor systems. The whole natural world is rich with them. It is full of materials for instruction: it is full of mind. In this, the Infinite Intelligence has shadowed forth itself, and, by a wise providence, has turned the infant curiosity to explore its rich and ever delighting scenes.

Instead, then, of an abstract, formal course of *exercises*, destitute of natural freshness and verdure, the instructer of an infant school will lead his pupils to the fountains of nature and truth, by a simple and gradual advancement, and present them with their rich and varied imagery, calling forth the buoyancy and enthusiasm of the infantine soul. He will throw around his delighted pupil a miniature world, diminished in its proportions to the progress of the pupil's mind. On the universe of surrounding things, he will stamp the impress of the Deity. When the forms of nature are inaccessible, he will aid his instructions by the delineations of art. He will communicate accurate ideas, and then give them their appropriate names. He will inspire good feelings, and turn their operations upon the will, the source of all virtue. His endeavour will be to *intellectualize* this will, by the influence of truth, and make it the moral guide of life. He will build up the foundation of a *man*—mind, heart, purpose, happiness. He will endeavour to fill out in detail, the outlines so beautifully sketched by the Author of Life, but left for man's employment and happiness.

These are the *perfect results* contemplated by the projectors of infant institutions—by the introduction of a purer system of education into the nursery—the schools—into society, the great educator of us all. These results are involved in the very nature and progress of things. They are practicable. Let but the spirit of christian benevolence be united with that of christian philosophy, and the end is sure. We are inexcusable if we oppose their union. We are abusing our responsibleness to coming generations, if we do not take the early formation of character into our hands, and faithfully and intelligently discharge the high trust committed to us.

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INTELLIGENCE.

FEMALE ACADEMY AT STURGEONVILLE, VIRGINIA.

[Extract from a Circular.]

In presenting the plan of this Academy to the public, the proprietor * does not feel confident that it is the best which might be adopted. Education in this country, is receiving a very great share of the attention, both of legislative bodies and of distinguished individuals. If the spirit of innovation does not become excessive, rapid improvements will continue to be made, and our seminaries of learning will assume the character and influence, which the welfare of society demands.

Half a century ago, no attention or expense was bestowed to cultivate the female mind, and to fit that fair part of community for the stations which they were destined to fill, and the duties which they were expected to perform. Public sentiment is changed: now sufficient sacrifices are frequently made, on the part of parents and friends, to educate their daughters; but, it is believed, the expense is often misapplied, from the want of more systematic instruction, and better discipline in the schools which they attend. No disparagement to other teachers is, by this remark, intended. The deficiency may be justly attributed to circumstances not within their control. The system of education now proposed, is not founded on mere theory; it is the result of extensive observation and much reflection. While it does not neglect the external accomplishments of females, it is directed chiefly to improve the intellectual faculties, and to form the virtues of the heart. The object is, to make woman the intelligent friend; to make her amiable and lovely in her manners, dignified in her deportment, an ornament to society, and a blessing to the world.

At this Academy the young ladies will be treated with parental tenderness and fidelity. They will constantly be under the immediate inspection and control of the teachers. Their characters will be formed and guarded with unremitted care and exertion.

First Course.

To occupy four years. Each year, two sessions. First Session 33 weeks; Second Session 11 weeks. Requisite age 12 years.

Studies of the Junior Class.

First Session.—Emerson's Chirography commenced; Greenleaf's Grammar Simplified; Morse's Geography commenced; Defining; Colburn's First Lessons commenced; Union Catechism commenced; Letter Writing; Reading; Spelling; Plain Needle-work. Music, if required.

Second Session.—Emerson's Chirography concluded; Colburn's First Lessons concluded; Campbell's History of Virginia; Analysis of Words and Sentences; Union Catechism continued; Letter Writing; Reading; Spelling; Plain Needle-work. Music, if required.

Studies of the First Middle Class.

First Session.—Morse's Geography concluded; Colburn's Sequel; Murray's Grammar; Goodrich's History of the United States; Analysis; Union Cate-

* Henry Clary, A. M.

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chism continued; Composition; Reading; Ornamental Needle-work. Music, if required.

Second Session.—Emerson's Geometry; Watts on the Improvement of the Mind; Exegesis of Selections from Cowper's Poems; Union Catechism concluded; Composition; Reading; Ornamental Needle-work. Music, if required.

Studies of the Second Middle Class.

First Session.—Blair's Outline of Chronology; Whelpley's Compend of History; Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, connected with Domestic Philosophy; Drawing and Painting; Composition; Reading. Music, if required.

Second Session.—Hedge's Logic; Goldsmith's England; Exegesis of Selections from Addison and Johnson's Works, and from Thomson's Seasons; Drawing Maps; Composition; Reading, Music, if required.

Studies of the Senior Class.

First Session.—Botany, connected in part with Gardening; Astronomy; Paley's Natural Theology; Parkhurst's Moral Philosophy; Exegesis of Young's Night Thoughts; Composition. Music, if required.

Second Session.—Stewart's Philosophy; Ecclesiastical History; Exegesis of Milton's Paradise Lost; Composition. Music, if required. Mineralogy and Geology will, if there be time, receive some attention in the senior year.

The teachers are required to give familiar lectures, chiefly in the interrogatory manner, on the studies which they teach.

Apparatus and auxiliary books will be provided for the academy. The library, connected with the academy, will contain the works of such authors, and such periodical publications, as are most approved in female education.

Lectures will be given on female manners, and on those accomplishments and virtues which peculiarly adorn the female character.

Those who shall have completed this course, and sustained their examinations, will receive honorary sealed certificates.

Tickets of admission, in this course, will be each year, thirty dollars for the first session, and ten dollars for the second session. Payable in advance.

None will be admitted for less time than one year. At the end of a year, any member of the school may, at the request of her parents or guardians, take a dismission;—in which case will be given a letter of dismissal.

The duties of this school, if it is patronized, will generally be performed by four teachers. As the school is divided into four classes, and each teacher is required to devote her time and attention exclusively to one class, it is presumed the superior advantages of this school must be evident to all.

Second Course.

To occupy three years. First Session, 33 weeks; Second Session, 11 weeks.

All young ladies who have completed the studies of the first course, and obtained sealed certificates, may be admitted into this school. Also, other ladies may be admitted who have already received sufficient education to enable them to pursue the studies of this school with success.

In this school will be taught, Latin and Greek, Mathematics, and the Modern Languages.

Much of the instruction will be given in lectures; and the students will be required to write translations from the different languages into English, and *vice versa*.

Tickets of admission, the same as in the first course.

Collateral School.

One teacher. An assistant, if necessary. First Session, 33 weeks; Second Session, 11 weeks. Students admitted for any length of time not less than one year.

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Three distinct objects will be accomplished by this school.

1st. It will be a preparatory school for admission into the other schools.

2d. It will afford an opportunity to those to pursue their studies profitably, who cannot hold their standing in the regular classes: i. e. to such as may have entered a class of the first course, but who, from the want of application to study, or some other cause, do not make sufficient progress to remain in the class.

3. Those who do not wish to attend to either of the regular courses, can, in this school, attend to any branches of female education, which they may wish.

Tickets of admission, thirty dollars per annum:—payable one half at the commencement of the first session, the other half at the commencement of the second session. The students may, without any additional charge, attend the lectures of the first course.

Music will be scientifically taught at this academy, by an eminent teacher. The students of each of the schools can attend the music lessons, without hindrance to their other studies. Tuition, fifty dollars per annum, payable one half at the commencement of the first session, and the other half at the commencemnet of the second session.

MOUNT HOPE LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTION.

[High expectations are very justly formed of this seminary; both the gentlemen who have devoted themselves to the superintendence of it, having already given every evidence of their competency to conduct such a school, so as not only to do ample justice to their pupils, but to aid the improvement of education by furnishing the best models of instruction in their respective departments.]

This Institution, occupying a commanding and salubrious spot, two miles west from the City of Baltimore, will be opened for the reception of scholars on the first of November next, under the superintendence of Professor F. Hall, now of Washington College, and Mr. Daniel P. Bacon of the City of New York.

Pupils will be admitted of any age between four and sixteen, and instructed by the Principals, and by the best qualified Assistants, in all the branches of useful knowledge, taught in the American Schools and Colleges. The languages of France and Spain will be taught by natives of those countries. Particular attention will be given to practical Arithmetic, Geometry, and Engineering; also, to Chemistry—as applied to Agriculture and the Arts—to Mineralogy, to aid them in the study of which, pupils will have access to a valuable cabinet of minerals, containing upwards of four thousand specimens; to Botany, and to Experimental Philosophy.

The Principals, or Assistants, will always be in company with their pupils, paternally to direct them, both in their studies and amusements, and to assist in the formation of a courteous, moral, and gentlemanly deportment. Gymnastic exercises will be taken daily.

Religious instruction, free from sectarianism, will be given within the Institution, not only on Sunday, but the exercises of every day will be commenced and closed with reading the Scriptures and Prayer.

There will be two vacations; the first, from the last of July to the first of September; the second, the two weeks immediately succeeding the twenty-third of December. During the vacations, pupils may remain at the Institution, under the supervision of their Instructers, free of expense.

The charge for tuition, board, room, fuel and light, not including washing or stationary, will be $250 a year, payable semi-annually in advance. Each

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scholar must furnish a cot, with its proper accompaniments, a chair and table. No student will be received for a shorter term than one year. In an Institution, isolated as this will be, very little pocket money is needed—and that which is allowed must pass through the hands of the Principals, and be given to the pupils, at their discretion. Parents will be credited for money deposited for this use, and charged for the sums delivered.—*Circular.*

EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

University of London.—The Lectures to the Medical Classes are to commence on the first of October; instruction in the other departments is to commence one month later. The Professorships are as follows:—Roman Language, Rev. John Williams, A. M.—Greek Language, George Long, Esq. A. M.—English Language and Literature, Rev. Thomas Dale, A. M.—German Language and Literature, Ludwig Von Muhlenfels, LL. D.—Italian Language and Literature, An. Panizzi, LL. D.—Spanish Language and Literature, Don A. Galiano—Hebrew, Hyman Hurwitz, Esq.—Hindoostanee, Rev. J. B. Gilchrist, LL. D.—Oriental Literature, Frederick Rosen, P. D.—Mathematics, Augustus de Morgan, Esq. A. B.—Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, Rev. D. Lardner, LL. D. F. R. S.—Chemistry, Ed. Turner, M. D. F. R. S. E.—Botany, John Lindley, F. R. S.—Political Economy, John R. Mac Culloch, Esq.—Jurisprudence, John Austin, Esq.—English Law, Andrew Amos, Esq.—Anatomy, Granville Sharp Pattison, Esq.—Dissections and Demonstrations, James R. Bennett, Esq.—Physiology, Charles Bell, Esq. F. R. S.—Comparative Anatomy and Zoology, Robert E. Grant, M. D.—Nature and Treatment of Diseases, John Conolly, M. D.—Midwifery, John D. Davis, M. D.—Materia Medica and Pharmacy, Anthony Todd Thompson, M. D. The following Professorships are still vacant:—Logic and Philosophy of the Human Mind; Moral and Political Philosophy; History, Ancient and Modern; Surgery; Mineralogy; French Language and Literature.

The council point out a course of lectures and instruction which they think most advantageous for a complete general education, and it is expected those who enter as regular university students will generally follow it. It extends through four years. Students are at liberty, however, to attend on what professors they please, paying the fees of those departments only for which their names are entered. The arrangement of studies in the regular course is very similar to that generally adopted in American colleges.

The professors give certificates of proficiency to those who attend their respective courses; and the university grants general certificates. All certicates are to be founded on the results of frequent and strict examinations.

Religious instruction will be given to those who wish to attend on it, by three of the professors, who are Episcopal clergymen. A Course of Divinity Lectures will also be delivered in the Chapel, which is to be occupied by these gentlemen for divine service.

The above is abstracted from a detailed statement, published by the council.

Vermont Chronicle.

University of Munich.—Among the professors in the new university of Munich, those who enjoy most reputation are Schelling, Görres, Ocken, Tiersch, Ast, Roeschlaub, and Döllinger. Schelling is beyond dispute the first man in point of literary abilities in Germany. He has exercised an extensive and powerful influence over the arts and sciences in that country, as the founder of the philosophy of nature, a system which has grown out of the philosophy of Kant, and revived that of Plato and Spinoza.

The philosophy of Schelling, however, does not consist in mere metaphysical speculations, at variance with the cause of natural sciences; its author is

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a consummate natural philosopher, a perfect chemist, and mathematician; and to the study of those sciences he has given fresh impulse: and, although some, carrying his ideas to the extreme, or misapplying them, have lost themselves in subtleties, the systems of chemical dynamics and of German mineralogy, which has been adopted by other nations, owe their origin to him. This illustrious man, invited to Munich, to be president of the New Academy of Sciences, has recommended, after fifteen years of silence, his lectures on the method of studying this system of philosophy. The concourse of his hearers—who consist of persons of all ages, among whom may be numbered professors themselves, and men already celebrated in the arts and sciences—is enormous; the most spacious hall in the university is incapable of containing his audience: the doors, when they are thrown open, are blocked up by a crowd of listeners, extending into the vestibule. With his knowledge of the sciences, Schelling combines a force of reasoning and a style truly Platonic.

Görres, known as the author of the work entitled 'Deutschland und die Revolution,' (Germany and the Revolution,) is the professor of history most in repute, and certainly occupies the place next to Schelling. The style of Görres, however, is too oriental, and his doctrines are are too strongly tinged with that poetical catholicism, which so much obscures the German intellect, in other respects also, too much addicted to mysticism.

The name of Ocken, the editor of the Isis, the principal periodical in matters of natural history in Germany, is too well known to foreign naturalists to require further notice; the same may be said of Roeschlaub and Döllinger, the professors of medicine.—*Walsh's Gazette.*

Education in Russia.—The University Library at St. Petersburgh contains at the present time about sixty thousand volumes, and the library at Moscow about thirty-four thousand volumes, which have been collected since the destruction of the city in 1812. The rich anatomical museum of Professor Lodor has recently been purchased for the University of Moscow for ten thousand roubles. An economical society, and a school for agriculture, have lately been established there by Prince Galitzin; the latter has professors of chemistry, statistics, mineralogy, geography, languages, and architecture, botany, gardening, planting, mechanics, book-keeping, and the veterinary art. The museum contains mineral specimens from the Brazils. The chemical laboratory at Moscow is, perhaps, the richest in all Europe. The botanical gardens at St. Petersburgh contain eighty thousand plants.—*Walsh's Gazette.*

Prussia.—In the Prussian states, according to the census of 1825, there were 12,256,725 inhabitants, of whom were 4,487,461 children under fourteen years of age; assuming that their education does not commence until the seventh year, about three-sevenths, that is, about 1,920,000 are in want of it. Every three years, lists are published, showing the number of public schools, of the masters and mistresses employed, and of the children of both sexes instructed. At the end of 1825, there were 20,887 elementary schools for both sexes; 458 central schools for boys, 278 do. for girls, making a total of 21,623 schools. In these schools are employed 22,261 masters and 704 mistresses; besides 2,024 assistants of both sexes.—*Mass. Jour.*

Netherlands.—There are six universities in the provinces; at Leyden, Louvain, Luttich, Ghent, Utrecht, and Groningen. The only difference between these and the Athenæums of Amsterdam, Francker, and Deventer, is the inability of the latter to confer the degree of Doctor. The Athenæums of the Southern Provinces embrace a more limited range of study. Among the learned societies, the first is the Royal Institute, established by Louis Bonaparte on the model of that of Paris, each section of which holds a public sitting once in two years, and distributes prizes. The next is the Royal Academy of Arts and Sciences at Brussels, founded by Count Cobentzel in 1767, suspend-

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ed by the political occurrences of the times in 1794, and re-established by the present king in 1816. It is devoted to the mathematical sciences, the fine arts, and natural history. The society of the sciences at Haarlem, which, by presents of the members, possesses a good museum of Natural History, is the oldest institution in the provinces, and limits itself to the exact sciences. The Leyden Society for the Literature of the Netherlands was endowed in 1766, and is occupied with the national language, eloquence, history, and poetry. The society founded at Amsterdam in 1787 for the public good, is divided into one hundred and seventy sections in the Netherlands and West Indies, and and has for its object the diffusion of sound religious and moral ideas, and useful knowledge among the poorer classes. It publishes small works for primary instruction, and sells them at the lowest rate; attends to the improvement of public education, erects savings banks, and is now occupied with the foundation of a School of Industry, chiefly intended for instruction in the arts and trades that require a knowledge of practical mathematics. Besides many others, not here noticed, there is a Jews' Society of utility and civilization.

Each province is divided into a certain number of district schools; with an inspector, who is responsible for the state of education in the district assigned to him. He is the legal adviser of the teachers, and has a voice in their appointment. No teacher can be employed without a certificate of ability from the provincial commission, *and all are obliged to pay every attention to propriety of conduct and cleanliness.* There are two Normal schools for teachers, one at Haarlem, the other at Liere. Periodical meetings of the teachers, for the purpose of communicating their experience, are encouraged by government.—*Ib.*

Ionian Islands.—The subjoined notices of the Ionian Islands, found in an English publication, were originally derived from the correspondence of Mr. A. Kalvos, in the Asiatic Journal,—of Professor Bambas, the friend of the late Messrs. Fisk and Parsons,—and of Mrs. Kennedy, a benevolent English lady, whose remarks on female education in Greece and the Ionian Islands were quoted in a former number. Mr. Kalvos says—

The University of the Islands, situated in Corfu, was opened in the autumn of 1823. In that year it contained sixteen professors, most of whom were of the first order; almost all of whom had studied, at the expense of lord Guildford, in the most celebrated Universities. The establishment when complete will cost the State about £5000 per annum. Before the opening of the University, about £7500 was annually sent out of the Islands, for the education, in Italy, of a sixtieth part of the youth. The government provides for the instruction in theology of one hundred ecclesiastics. Lord Guildford, at his own expense, provided for the instruction of forty youths, destined to be judges, merchants, or cultivators. The library contains thirty thousand volumes. A botanical garden is formed, and a school of design and sculpture has been opened.

The state of the schools of mutual instruction is as follows:—The first figures after the name of each island denoting the number of its inhabitants, the second that of its schools, and the third that of its scholars.

Cefalonia,	49,857	2	157	Ithaca,	8,200	1	87
Corfu,	48,787	3	239	Sante Maura,	17,425	1	75
Paxos,	3,970	1	40	Cerigo,	8,140	8	772
Zante,	40,063	13	363				
				Total,	176,392	29	1,733

That is, 176,392 inhabitants, 29 schools, and 1,733 scholars.

The remarks which follow upon Cefalonia were made by Prof. Bambas, and those upon Zante, and Cerigo, by Mrs. Kennedy.

Cefalonia—Since my first arrival, I informed all my friends and acquaintance of the willingness and pleasure with which I would receive any of the poor ecclesiastics, who wished to learn the ancient Greek: to this moment, no one had evinced the least desire to avail himself of the offered opportunity.

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The progress, which many of my scholars have made, has at length stimulated their lethargy; and caused many to attend to instruction as a real good, to the possession of which they ought to give a portion of their vainly spent lives. The government has begun to take notice of the diligence of some of the ecclesiastics.

Zante—is, next to Corfu, the island of greatest importance. The town is crowded to excess, yet it does not afford the least means of instruction to females; and a doubt has been expressed to me, whether the girls would be allowed to attend the school, if one were established; but as the Zantiotes are very jealous of their own dignity, they will blush when they find schools established in the other islands, while the women of Zante are permitted to remain in the most profound ignorance. The establishment of the college will undoubtedly produce a change in the desires and sentiments even of the Zantiotes.

Cerigo—Notwithstanding his very circumscribed means and the prejudices of individuals, captain M'Phail, the resident, has built seven capital schools; all of which are in activity, and contain nearly one thousand pupils. The order observed in these schools is scarcely exceeded in England; the progress is almost incredible: above all the female school of one hundred and thirteen pupils is admirably well managed. A great portion of the scholars, of both sexes, are refugees from all parts of Greece; so that the benefits of the system will extend to the whole of the Levant.—*Missionary Herald.*

NOTICE.

History of Vermont, from its first settlement to the present time, with a Geographical Account of the country and a View of its Original Inhabitants. For the use of Schools. By F. S. Eastman. Brattleborough. Holbrook and Fessenden. *1828.* 18mo. pp. 110.

This work exhibits a perspicuous outline of the history of Vermont, and, being designed for the use of schools, appears to be happily adapted to its purpose. It selects the prominent and interesting events in such a manner as to excite the curiosity of the learner, and to induce him, at the proper period, to pursue this department of his historical reading to a greater extent.

The most advantageous use of this volume will be to employ it as a first book in history, to be followed by Goodrich's work on the history of the United States,—which we mention as on several accounts preferable, particularly in the schools of New England. Worcester's Elements, in addition to the preceding volumes, will, for common purposes, furnish a respectable knowledge of this branch of education. In higher seminaries something more than this will no doubt be expected. But in whatever school history is taught in an intelligible and interesting manner, it must begin with such a volume as this—corresponding, of course, to the local situation of the learners.

This volume seems to be arranged in a clear, distinct, and intelligible manner, which cannot fail to render it easy and agreeable to the young. We hope it will be introduced extensively in the younger classes of the Vermont schools.

*** Review of Mr. Willard's History of the United States, and Notices, will appear in our next number.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

POPULAR IMPROVEMENT.

Benefits derived from Philosophical Societies.

[From an Address, delivered before the Pittsburgh Philosophical Society, by Robert Bruce, M. D. President of the Society, July 3, 1828.]

But it is not science alone to which philosophical societies have turned their successful attention, the arts have been also taken under their care. They have ventured to suggest the means of improving the soils of the earth, and to put into the hand of the husbandman the best constructed implements for success in his work. They have constructed machinery for the threshing of his grain, the carding of his wool and cotton, and the spinning and weaving, the dyeing and dressing of them. They have led the architect to elegance of design, by the rules of taste which they have investigated, and by the specimens of ancient buildings which, as perfect models. they have brought to his view. They have taught the manufacturer the principle of power which he is to use, the best means of its application, the diameter and pitch of each wheel, which, in the whole complication of machinery, he is to employ, and the adjustment throughout the most extensive manufactory, of each part, so as to make the most harmonious whole. They have afforded the best models to the ship-builder ; instructed him in the best trim of the sails, and made him acquainted with finding a ship's place on the globe, by the unerring method of celestial observations. In a word, while they have cultivated a science in music, which is truly ennobling, they have perfected, both by chemical process and mechanical structure, every instrument which is useful to the eye, which can measure time, or which can adjust weight ; which can estimate the degree of heat or moisture which is in

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the atmosphere; which can ascertain the velocity of the wind, or the temperature of the different latitudes of the ocean; and and which can show the movements of our earth, and all her sister planets in their elliptical orbits around the sun. They have improved machinery to be elegant and harmonious, they have connected it with principles of power which are equally energetic and under the laws of control; and they have set it, under the ingenuity of their designs, to ease the toils and relieve the labour of the human fumily. But it is impossible to particularize the scientific improvements in the arts. When Columbus found out America it was an almost universal wilderness; but now it is covered with plantations which grow the produce of every clime; and this is an emblem of the successful labours of the men of science, in the improvement of the arts. The whole face of society is changed, and the wilderness has become a fruitful field.

But the life of man is extremely short; and no parent has the power of conveying, by an arbitrary will, the inheritance of his knowledge to his children. The rising generation have always to learn all which the philosophers of former ages have investigated and ascertained.

Our society has been formed to aid us, and others who may see fit to join it; as, in a great measure, we are all too little acquainted with the philosophical attainments, which, in the different branches of science, the world possesses; and, as we ought not, for our own sake, and the sake of others, to remain contentedly so, in our happy country and flourishing city.

The situation, relations, and prospects of Pittsburgh, have claims upon its citizens equal to most cities in the *world*. Its prospects are excelled by few. The canals and railroads which connect it with all the flourishing cities towards the east, and with the commerce of Europe, which though immediately terminating in these cities, must receive its most extended and permanent support from the vast regions toward the west, and the Ohio, which connects Pittsburgh with all these fertile western regions, say that our city has prospects solid as are her inexhaustible mines for the support of her manufactories, and permanent as are the streams which flow by her. But is Pittsburgh to become one of the first cities in commerce and manufactures in the world, and her population to remain ignorant of that science which is no less ennobling to the human mind, than it is the solid basis of the prosperity of any place, in the present highly improved state of society and of the arts? No; we must

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recollect, that it is by unwearied industry and perseverance that we can, in any degree, become acquainted with the various branches of the sciences and the arts as they now exist; and while our society is formed for our own mutual improvement, it is not more as insulated individuals who might covet the sweets of knowledge, nor as general philosophers, who might enlighten the world around them, that we are to exert ourselves, than it is as inhabitants of Pittsburgh—a place to which great wealth must flow, and where almost every art, which requires science to provide its materials, and to preside over their operation, will flourish. Agriculture has a claim on our assistance to improve our surrounding country, that the growth of our city may be in no degree impeded by the difficulty of procuring subsistence; our manufactures, while they may greatly flourish under the practical experience of our industrious citizens, yet, if possible, should be examined and improved under the eye of science; and our navigation should be aided by every suggestion respecting economy, safety, and facility. We should examine our surrounding botany, and our mineralogy, and we should extend, by correspondence, our inquiries respecting these subjects, to the borders of our great lakes, and to the regions of the Mississippi and Missouri. Our society having commenced, should provide itself with an apparatus, as full and as perfect, as it can; and while it may keep in view the contributing a little, perhaps, to the general current of improvement which has now such a full stream and a rapid flow, our main object, for a long time, must be to enter ourselves as scholars, to be taught what is already known; and to commence the operations of a society, which the place, where Providence has assigned us our lot, has a right to call her citizens, however little practised in philosophical pursuits and investigations they may be, to attempt to commence and steadfastly to prosecute.

In conclusion, permit me to remark, that the benediction which will arise, on the whole, as an unction to our understandings, from the eminent attainments we are about to contemplate in natural science, will be, that, while all tend to illustrate the perfection of infinite wisdom and power, they will change the aspect of philosophy into a view the very opposite of that of the ancient heathens respecting matter. Those of them who considered the soul as an immaterial substance, complained of matter as the dregs of existence, and an incumbrance on their being; but we are led to see infinite space peopled with it, and our earth, which they supposed to comprehend the

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most of it, is diminished into an almost imperceptible speck in the creation, and yet all teems with the elements of exalted science. What, then, we are led to ask, must be the character of our existence, if we are to enjoy immortality? There must be a congeniality in the nature of our being to the home of these heavens into which we are about to enter. Yes, our souls will be connected with material organs, that we may be enabled to examine and admire the infinite wisdom and knowledge which the boundless material universe will for ever present to our examination, and to feed and maintain, in part, at least, our adoration of the Author of all spiritual and material being.

AMERICAN LYCEUM.

[We shall continue to present occasionally such intelligence as we can procure concerning this interesting and popular institution. It seems to be rapidly extending over the New-England States; and we hope to hear of its introduction in New-York and other parts of the country, and especially wherever common schools are established; as it seems likely to be of great service to the cause of popular improvement in this way.

It will prove immediately useful to the community by its influence on the progress of the arts and sciences connected with the business and the enjoyments of life. But, as a school for teachers, affording them valuable information at a very moderate expense, it seems peculiarly adapted to the circumstances of most young men, in country places particularly. Few of the individuals who teach a district school can command the means of a complete course of education; but all may sustain their share of the expenses of a Lyceum, on the plan proposed.

While offering the following articles to our readers, we would take the opportunity to suggest that the Lyceum might be rendered still more useful, were there formed in each of our larger seaports an association of individuals who are capable and desirous of promoting the diffusion of useful science, and who would take the requisite measures for making suggestions, and communicating intelligence, which might be deemed conducive to the objects of the Lyceum. Peculiar facilities for the purposes of useful science, are enjoyed in most cities and large towns; and the transmission of these, as far as practicable,

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would be an aid of great value in situations comparatively remote from such advantages. But this subject is one on which we cannot enter at present to the extent which its importance demands. We must defer farther observations on this head till the publication of our next number, when they may be presented in a separate form.]

American Lyceum.—The branches of this institution, already in operation, have varied in their subjects of attention, the manner of conducting them, and their consequent success. Some have confined their attention almost exclusively to the sciences. To give each science a portion of attention, the Society is divided into several classes, viz. a class of mechanics, one of chemists, another of astronomers, one of geologists, &c. Each class chooses a foreman, and occupies the floor and attention of the society, according to agreement among the whole. When mechanics is the subject before the meeting, the foreman calls upon one of his class to illustrate the lever, another the screw, the wheel and axis, pully, &c.; making an application of each to the practical pursuits of life. A similar course is pursued by the class of chemists, geologists, astronomers and others. Upon this plan, it is not uncommon for six or eight, or perhaps ten or a dozen, to take a part in the exercises of an evening. Under proper regulations any member present is allowed to question the persons making the illustrations, and to dispute any point he conceives to be erroneous. This sometimes leads to a full discussion of certain points, which never fails to fix them permanently in the minds of all present, and frequently introduces them as topics of general conversation, and among those who are not members of the Society.

In other Lyceums the instruction is communicated more in the form of lectures, or dissertations, where the whole work of an evening devolves upon one or two persons, each one being left to choose a subject, to suit his taste, acquirements and judgment. The subjects however are generally intended to be of a practical character, and treated in a plain, familiar way, fitted to the comprehension of all the members. Upon this plan lectures have been given upon Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Geology, Railways, Canals, powers and debilities of the stomach, the structure, diseases and management of teeth, the structure and movement of clocks and watches, fruit-trees, fruit, fuel and various other subjects of agriculture and domestic economy.

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Besides subjects of a scientific and definite character, some societies have occasionally, and others generally, introduced those of a more general or miscellaneous nature; involving principles of expediency, rather than science; and relating to government, law, political and domestic economy, agriculture, education, morals, &c. These are conducted in the form of common debates.

In some instances, exercises particularly designed for young and inexperienced minds, such as reading, declamation, composition, particularly letter writing, also grammar and geography have been introduced.

The plan of the General Society admits and supposes that each town, county and state Lyceum, will manage its concerns on most points, in a manner perfectly independent of all the rest, and fitted to the views, pursuits, acquirements, taste, ages and wants, of those coming within their sphere.

It will be seen at once, that upon whatever plan the exercises of a Lyceum are conducted, it answers the great and important purpose of introducing into family and social circles, proper and useful topics of conversation, and converts amusements and daily intercourse into great and powerful vehicles for diffusing knowledge, and for enlightening, purifying and elevating human society.

From experiments already made by Lyceums, two results somewhat unexpected have been observed. First, that the natural diffidence and backwardness which the members sometimes have in attempting illustrations, very soon wholly disappear; and they enter upon them as readily and cheerfully as they do upon any exercise in their ordinary pursuits; and, *second*, that the principles and subjects of discussion at their meetings, become in a short time, certainly and thoroughly, though insensibly, understood by most who attend them.—*Bost. Pat.*

This institution proposes a system of mutual instruction, fitted to the towns and villages in New-England, and other parts of the country. The instruction is to be conducted at weekly or occasional meetings for reading, conversation, discussions, dissertations, illustrating the sciences, or other subjects of useful knowledge, or popular, *practical* education.

To aid these exercises, it is proposed to have each branch or town Lyceum, supplied with books, simple articles of apparatus for illustrating the sciences, and their application to the business of the farmer, mechanic, and civil engineer; also, specimens of

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Natural History, viz. Geology, Mineralogy, and if desired, in Botany and Zoology.

This collection is to be made with reference to the various classes of society in a town, and deposited in some central place, where persons from all sections of the town, and of various pursuits and ages, can meet, according to arrangements made to accommodate the whole.

At one time, school teachers can meet, and discuss or illustrate subjects relating to their profession, and consequently for the benefit, not of themselves, but of their schools, and through them, for the benefit of the community and the world.

At the same or another time, misses and lads, young ladies and gentlemen, who frequently waste their time in school with little children, or have passed the age for common school instruction, may meet, and receive in a weekly or semi-weekly course of exercises among themselves, or under the assistance of a regular teacher, a clergyman, a lawyer, a physician, a farmer, a mechanic, a merchant, any gentleman or lady competent and disposed to teach, instruction fitted to their age, pursuits, and wants.

At the same place and with the same opportunities, farmers can meet, to bring together their own views and experience, and compare them with those related by authors upon the subject of consideration, it having been adopted at a previous meeting. By the aid of apparatus and tests, the correctness of views or principles, may, perhaps, be tried by actual experiment.

Mechanics can also make use of the same place, library, apparatus and specimens, to illustrate subjects, and prove or test principles, which they daily use, and a knowledge of which would increase both their satisfaction and success in their useful pursuits.

Societies of females, for literary or benevolent purposes, might improve the same opportunities, to give interest to their meetings, and greater efficiency and usefulness, to their exercises.

Besides exercises fitted to the pursuits or the wants of particular classes of society, others of a more general or popular character may be introduced, such as popular lectures on the sciences, or any other subject of useful knowledge and common interest ; and these, either by a citizen or citizens, or by some one employed from abroad for the purpose.

To strengthen and facilitate the operations of the several branch Lyceums, all in a county are to be united by a Board of Delegates, who are to meet semi-annually, to adopt regulations,

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and forward measures for the general and mutual benefit of the whole. A County Lyceum is intended also to adopt measures for the benefit of schools in their district—to collect facts respecting their state and their wants, suggest improvements, and perhaps act as a Board of examiners of school teachers in the county, and of course to take the place of town committees for that object.

Each County Lyceum in a State is to appoint one or more representatives, to meet perhaps, during the session of their Legislature, to organize and adopt measures, to advance the interests of education. A State Lyceum may act as a Board of Education; and by appointing committees for specific object, viz. one to examine and recommend school books; another to determine upon the most essential branches in a system of popular education; the proportionate time and attention proper to devote to each; the order in which they should be introduced, and the most efficient methods of inculcating them.

Not only the various subjects of instruction, but the different faculties of the mind, viz. judgment, memory, temper and imagination, might justly come under the consideration of this or another committee. The subject of such a committee would be to give both efficiency and symmetry to education.

From several State Lyceums a General Union might be formed, to be called the American Lyceum, and to perform the duties of an American Board of Education, in the most extensive sense of the word.

Under the patronage of the American Lyceum may be published, a Journal, or the Journal of Education; small, familiar and practical treatises on the sciences, scientific, biographical, or historical tracts, &c. for the benefit of the various town Lyceums, schools, workshops, taverns, steam boats, and private families.

More than fifty societies upon this plan are already formed, and from the greater or less success which has uniformly attended their operations, and from the great increase of strength and efficiency, which an extensive and General Union of the plan could not fail to give to individual efforts, it is most earnestly hoped, that every town and village in New-England, at least, will take the subject into early and serious consideration, to determine whether they cannot, during the months of autumn and winter, participate in spirit, and engage in the exercises, that they may enjoy the benefits of an institution designed for the diffusion of knowledge and the benefit of the world.—*Bost. Advertiser.*

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Progress of the Lyceum. The fifty or sixty branches of the American Lyceum already established, contemplate a National Institution for the diffusion of knowledge, and the introduction of a uniform and improved system of popular education. It is hoped that, early in the autumn season, every town and village in New England at least, will take its objects into consideration, in regard, both to the instruction it promises to those who associate, and the general diffusion of useful and *practical* knowledge through the community.

If farmers generally, throughout the country, should enter into the arrangement, and under it, hold weekly meetings, through the winter, to discuss subjects relating to their business, it could not fail to reward them abundantly with rich and useful instruction, and the most elevated and refined social enjoyment.

Perhaps, however, there is no class of the community, to whom the aid it offers is so important, as school teachers. Weekly meetings of teachers, where they could have books, apparatus, and other means of instructing each other, would immediately throw their benign and powerful influence into schools, and through them, into the whole mass of society.

Oct. 1828 *Am. Trav.*

DISCIPLINE, ON THE MONITORIAL PLAN.

[From the View of Livingston County High School.]

It has been our endeavour to inculcate the desire of usefulness, regard to character, and the love of learning, as inducements to industrious study. We give our decided preference to such motives as these, above any artificial stimulants that have ever been devised. The rank of each member of our school depends upon his exemplary conduct, and excellent scholarship. To facilitate the attainment of this object, and to make the effects of regularity and industry the more apparent, the following plan has been adopted :—The *teachers* and *monitors* are selected with reference to their standing. The duty of the *teachers* is to hear the recitations of certain classes assigned to them, and mark against each name, on a slate prepared for the purpose, a *credit*, or several *credits*, a *check* or several *checks*, according to the character of the recitation. The duty of the

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monitors, who sit at the head of the seats, each of them having a list of those occupying the row of desks immediately before him, is, to copy off, at the expiration of each hour, the accounts made out by the *teachers*. At the end of each half day, these bills are read aloud, together with the marks for *misdemeanours*, irregularities, and tardiness; and excuses may be offered by the delinquents. Whenever these are deemed valid, the mark is erased. Each monitor has a right to set down any one on his list, for disorderly conduct; but this is more particularly the province of two *monitors of order*, who are constantly at the desk, and overlook the whole school. At the expiration of the week, the accounts are balanced, and the amount of *credits*, *checks*, *merits*, *forfeits*,* *misdemeanours*, &c. is again read aloud, and every scholar is at liberty to correct errors. The bills thus adjusted, are transferred into a large book, containing a catalogue of all the members of the school; against whose names the weekly accounts are recorded. Thus the progress and character of each individual, are subjects of record in the annals of the school: a method, in our opinion, well calculated to awaken a sentiment of self-respect, a desire of improvement, and an honorable ambition to excel. Besides which, it is our intention to have an exhibition at the expiration of each term, the performances of which, will be assigned in strict reference to regularity of conduct, regularity of attendance, and standing in scholarship. Such motives to exertion have not been found inefficient thus far, and it is believed the result will fully justify the reasoning on which they are founded.

* Two credits equal 1 merit; ten *checks* 1 *forfeit*. Other punishments are used, such as *probation*, or suspension from intercourse with the school.

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INTELLIGENCE.

APPRENTICES' LIBRARY IN THE CITY OF WASHINGTON.

At a meeting of the citizens, held at the City Hall, in the City of Washington, on Thursday evening, the 24th instant, for the purpose of organizing a Library Association for the use and benefit of Apprentices—the Rev. Reuben Post was called to the chair, and J. Elkins appo.nted secretary.

The committee appointed for that purpose at a previous meeting, submitted the following Constitution for the government of the Association, which was unanimously adopted.

Constitution of the Apprentices' Library Association.

Art. 1 This Association shall be denominated the Apprentices' Library Association of Washington City.

Art. 2. The officers of the Association shall be a Board of Directors, consisting of five persons, to be chosen after the present year on the first Monday of May, annually, by ballot, who shall appoint their president, a treasurer, and librarian, and have the general control and direction of the library.

Art. 3. The president must be one of the directors elect, shall preside in all meetings of the board, and sign orders of the treasurer.

The treasurer shall collect and safely keep all money, accounts, and bonds, belonging to the association, pay all orders of the board, and render, annually, an exact account of all the receipts, expenditures, and funds of the association.

The librarian shall have charge of the books belonging to the library, arrange and preserve them in good order, keep a catalogue of the same, deliver and receive books at such times as the board may appoint, keep a record of every book taken from the library, the name of the perron taking it, at the times of taking and returning the same, together with all fines and forfeitures arising from default. He shall also act as secretary to the board of directors.

Art. 4. Any person who shall pay to the treasurer three dollars or upwards, on subscribing this constitution, or who shall contribute to the library books, approved and estimated by the directors, to the value of ten dollars or upwards, shall be a member of this association: and, in addition to his voting in elections, and eligibility to office in this association, he shall have the privilege of using the books of the library, on the same terms as the apprentices themselves.

5. Any apprentice, and any member of this association, who shall pay to the treasurer the sum of twenty-five cents per quarter, shall be allowed to take from the library one folio or quarto volume, two octavos, or under, and keep the folio, six weeks; the quarto, four weeks; the octavo, three weeks; and the duodecimo, two weeks, with the privilege of renewal: and shall be subject to a fine of six and a quarter cents on each book, for every library day it is detained beyond the limited time.

Art. 6. If any person shall lose or damage a book, he shall make the same good to the librarian; and if the book lost be one of a set, he shall pay, at the discretion of the board, the value of the entire set, and be permitted to take the old set as his own.

Art. 7. This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting of the association, by a majority of the members present; and the board of directors may, at any time, adopt such rules and regulations, for attaining the object of the association, as they shall think best; provided they do not contravene any part of this constitution.

The meeting proceeded to the election of directors for the present year, and the following gentlemen were chosen, namely:—Hon. William Cranch,

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Joseph Gales, jr. Esq., Rev. Reuben Post, Andrew Way, jr. Esq., Jeremiah Elkins, Esq.

Resolved, That the directors elect be requested to meet on Monday evening next, at five o'clock.

Resolved, That the several ward committees be requested to make such collections as may be in their power, for the aid of the association, as soon as practicable, and make a return thereof to the board of directors.

Resolved, That the proceedings of this meeting, embracing the constitution of the association, be signed by the chairman and secretary, and published in the several papers of this city.

REUBEN POST, Chairman.

J. ELKINS, Secretary.

National Journal, April 29.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS.

At our annual meeting, last spring, the following sums were appropriated to the purposes of public instruction, namely;—

For common schools	$2,500
For finishing high school building	750
Towards salary of master for high school	500
	$3,750
Add annual proceeds of school fund, divided among the district schools	500
Gives the generous total of	$4,250

Of this sum, 3,500 dollars are paid out to schoolmasters and schoolmistresses.

Journal.

SUNDAY SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS.

The number of these is increasing in all parts of the country, and among various denominations. In addition to those memtioned in former numbers, we have lately received copies of the Sabbath School Treasury, No. I.—a periodical published by the Massachusetts Sabbath School Union—of the Christian Teacher's Manual, also a monthly periodical, and published in Boston, but supported by private individuals—and of the Genesee Sabbath School Herald, published in Rochester, N. Y.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS.

At the close of 1823, the first Mechanics' Institution was established in England: there are now more than one hundred similar ones in Great Britain and Ireland. In France they are established in ninety-four towns, and recently they have been introduced into Germany, and an effort has been made to originate one in Madrid, and others in Hayti.—*Mass. Jour.*

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EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

Highlands of Scotland.—We make the following extracts from a letter, written by the Edinburgh Association of Theological Students, to the Princeton Society of Inquiry on Missions. It was dated August 4, 1827, and lately published in the Philadelphian.—*Bost. Record.*

The cause of education continues to flourish in Scotland; and schools continue to increase in many districts of the country. Since we last addressed you, forty new schools have been erected in the Highlands. These are placed under the direction of the General Assembly; and are supported by congregational collections, and subscriptions, which are raised under its patronage. The committee, who have the more immediate management of them, have selected no fewer than eighty-six other stations, to which they have agreed to appoint teachers, as soon as the requisite accommodations can be provided for them. We view these facts with great pleasure; and, from the respectability of the attainments of the teachers who have been provided for them, the excellent control under which they are placed, and the suitable books which will be used, we anticipate great good to our northern countrymen. The venerable society for propagating christian knowledge continues to diffuse the blessings, which it has been so long engaged in communicating to the destitute parts of our land. It employs ten missionaries and eighteen catechists. Its schools are attended by upwards of fifteen thousand children. The Gaelic School Society pursues its useful labours with its accustomed zeal. Its circulating schools were, during the past year, attended by four thousand five hundred and forty-six scholars; whose progress has been reported to be generally satisfactory. It has distributed, since its commencement, about one hundred and twenty-six thousand three hundred publications, including copies of the scriptures, scripture extracts, and psalm books. The committee state that they are anxious to raise the scale of spiritual attainment requisite in those persons whom they employ as teachers; and that they have agreed to allow them a higher salary than that which they have hitherto received. Respecting the Inverness Education Society, our late information is very limited. From the last account of its operations which we have seen, it appeared to be engaged in communicating the blessings of a religious instruction to three thousand poor Highlanders. We are sorry to state, however, that it does not meet with that support which, from its economy, and the local knowledge possessed by its directors, it is entitled to receive. Last summer it published a very able statistical pamphlet, which casts great light upon the religious state of the north of Scotland. Of the Glasgow Society for the support of Gaelic schools we have received no intelligence since last year. Sabbath School instruction meets with efficient support in Scotland. In connexion with our Sabbath School Union, there are at present one thousand five hundred and seventy-two schools attended by seventy-eight thousand three hundred and ninety-one children, and it is worthy of notice that there are many other schools in different parts of the country, between which and this society no relation exists. Religious instruction is the object of our Sabbath Schools.

Libraries. The population of Scotland has long been noted as a reading population, and we are happy to state that circulating, subscription, and congregational libraries are greatly on the increase. In the county of Mid-Lothian a society for supporting circulating libraries is supported with vigour; and a society has been lately formed in Edinburgh for extending the same means of improvement to this city and the neighbouring parishes. The committee of the General Assembly for increasing the means of education and religious instruction in Scotland, propose to attach useful libraries to their schools, which will be regulated on the circulating system. This system, which was invented by a pious merchant in Haddington, we take the liberty of bringing under your particular notice. You will find it developed in several publications which have been handed to us with the view of being sent to you.

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Ireland.—From an able and interesting paper published in the Scotsman, we learn that the progress which education has made in Ireland, within the last sixteen years is perfectly astonishing. From the returns made by the clergy in 1808, the number of scholars attending all the schools, was estimated at 200,000. It was found to be 395,813 when the general census was taken in 1821; and in 1824 it had risen to 560,549, according to the returns made by the established clergy, and to 565,964, according to those made by the Catholic priests. The amount of education has thus been almost tripled in sixteen years. If we estimate the population of Ireland, in 1824, at 7,500,000, the children at school will amount to nearly 1-13th part of the inhabitants.—*New York paper.*

Holland.—There are few countries in which greater exertions appear to be made for the general diffusion of knowledge, than in the kingdom of the Netherlands, under the present government. By a report of the minister of public instruction, it appears that, in the 3718 *communes* into which the kingdom is divided, there exist 3889 public schools, with 383,970 scholars. The number of scholars in private schools is stated at 173,741, and the number of persons receiving no instruction at 241,292.

Brunswick.—Among numerous ameliorations introduced into the Duchy of Brunswick, that of schools is worthy of observation. The government has recently granted to the schools a building, and the sum of 20,000 thalers. The primary schools are to be enlarged, the scientific schools are to be divided into ten classes; and a special school, which has been opened under the most favorable auspices, is to be kept up at the public expense.—*Vermt. Chron.*

Sweden.—The king of Sweden has given orders to establish Schools of Navigation in the ports of Stockholm, Gifle, Calmar, Malmoe and Gothenburg, where instructions are to be given in the theory and practice of all branches necessary to form good captains of merchantmen. After the beginning of the next year, no captain of a merchantman will be able to obtain the rights of a citizen unless previously examined in the art of navigation, and recommended by the head of one of the marine schools.—*Am. Trav.*

EDUCATION IN HINDOSTAN.

The education of native youth, of both sexes, appears to engross much attention. Extracts are published in the newspapers from English essays, written by the Hindoo students of the Anglo Indian College, in which the juvenile authors bring their acquirements in European learning to bear upon questions of moral, literary, political, and social importance, in a very ingenious and remarkable manner.

Great benefits are expected to result from this diffusion of the literature of the West.—'One of the first effects,' says the editor of the India Gazette, 'will be the eradication from the minds of the native youth, of much of the superstitution which constantly left their fathers in "a false position" in the social compact. The film will fall from their mental orbs, and they will view matters with very different sentiments from those now too prevalent.'

Will they continue in the strict sense of the term, Gentoos? Will the child of the lowest caste continue—after becoming intimate with the history, the literature and institutions of the West—to consider with perfect content, complacency, and conviction, a system that holds up the degradation of his tribe to the end of the world as just and necessary? Will he not—as affects his con-

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science at least—long to throw off the bonds of this, to him and his race, oppressive law? Is it likely that one of the youths educated at the Anglo Indian College—one, in short, of those young men, whose recitations, or essays have been recently publicly displayed—is it likely that such a person would consider it a proper act, religiously or morally, to be instrumental to the sacrifice of a sister, mother, or daughter—or to be the first to light the pile that was to consign her to a shocking death.

It is no less satisfactory to find that the blessings of knowledge are becoming more appreciated, and likely to spread among the native female population in different parts of the country. It appears by a report recently published by the Missionaries of Serampore, that upwards of two hundred female children are in attendance at the schools established in and near that station and Ishera.

The Mofussul Schools, too, appear to be going on very satisfactorily. The number attending the Beerbhoom Schools is upwards of forty. At Dacca there are about one hundred and forty female scholars. The Chittagong schools are attended by seventy seven. There is also a school at Jessore, Akyab, Allahabad, and Benares; and the total number in attendance at the Serampore and other schools amounts to no less than five hundred and fifty—and there is every probability of their increasing as the fame of these schools becomes spread. Indeed, the cause of education appears to be getting every day more and more popular among the people. In one part of the report it is observed—'In most of the schools the parents attended, and testified their joy at the proficiency made by their children. All suspicion and prejudice seemed to have vanished away.'

One of the missionaries states that several respectable '*Moosoolmans*' have lately called upon him and offered to take charge of schools. 'Every girl,' he adds, 'that leaves the schools, spreads the fame of them, and the knowledge of our exertions inspires the people with a desire that their villages might profit by them.'—*Salem Gaz.*

AMERICAN MISSIONARY SCHOOLS IN CEYLON.

The Seminary is doing as well as could be expected. The students make good progress in mathematics, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, &c., and have made some attainments in geography and astronomy. The *first* class are to leave next September. The number now in the Seminary is 67. In the Preparatory School there are 100, and in the Female Central School, 27. Our Common Schools are 93 in number, containing 3,311 boys and 982 girls. The expense of all these [Common Schools] the last year was about $2,500; and of our Boarding Establishments, more than $3000, aside from buildings, &c. But the good done is abundantly proportioned to the expense.

Comparing the statement with the last accounts contained in the Missionary Herald, dated four months previous, it appears that during this interval, six new Schools had been formed, and that 568 pupils had been added to the Common Schools, besides several to the Seminary and Preparatory School. The whole number now under instruction, is 4,487.—*N. Y. Obs.*

EDUCATION IN COLOMBIA.

The government of Colombia which has never for an instant lost sight of the national glory, and which is well aware that all glory, however brilliant, dis-

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appears under the shadows of ignorance and barbarism—has exerted itself from the beginning, and even in the midst of the tumult of arms, to diffuse the light of knowledge throughout the whole extent of the teritory of the Republic. Evidence of this, are the goodly number of schools for mutual instruction, the colleges and other seminaries of education founded by its munificence; its decrees, also, whereby it has bestowed a thousand facilities, and extended a parental protection to studious youth;—and finally, the provisional plan for instruction, submitted on the 3d October, 1826, formed in pursuance of the law and of the decree of Congress of the 10th March, of the same year, conferring the requisite authority.

It should not be matter of wonder, that these efforts of the government, praiseworthy as they are, have encountered some opposition in the outset. This was a natural consequence of the prejudice with which men regard what they have not been able duly to examine, or of that which rejects every project that does not immediately promote their own interest. Ever will Colombia remember with gratitude and affectionate interest, the glorious epoch which has given to academic studies the steady and majestic course which they now pursue. She has thus laid the foundation for an establishment of the greatest value and dignity in the republic, and the improvements of which it may be susceptible, will make its worth more and more conspicuous.—*Redact. Espan. trans. Mass. Jour.*

NOTICE.

A Dictionary of the Proper Names in the New Testament, with other helps for Teachers in Sabbath Schools. By W. G. O. Dwight. Utica Western Sunday School Union. 1828. 18mo. pp. 66.

This is one of the most useful little manuals for biblical instruction, that we have yet seen. It is compiled from the best sources, and embraces a great quantity of miscellaneous information, in addition to what its title would lead us to expect. The dictionary contains a succinct but satisfactory account of persons and places, which extends occasionally to interesting and instructive particulars drawn from the writers of profane history.

The vocabulary of words peculiar chiefly to the New *Testament*, is, we think, one of the most useful parts of the volume; and ought, perhaps, to be enlarged in subsequent editions. The other contents of the work are principally explanatory tables, all of great importance to a clear understanding of scripture. But of these we have not room to make particular mention. The chronological tables, however, we cannot omit to recommend to the particular attention of teachers, whether of Sunday or of common schools, as furnishing a very desirable means of imparting distinct and exact ideas of the New Testament history.

To recommend this volume in general terms, after mentioning its contents, would be unnecessary. Its small size, and low price, though, in themselves, a great convenience in relation to the wants of elementary schools, would be undeserving of notice; were it not for the minute accuracy of the work itself, and its correct and neat execution.

*** *The Review of Mrs. Willard's History of the United States, will be inserted in our next number.*

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AMERICAN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. XI. NOVEMBER, 1828. Vol. III.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Present state of the University of France.—The university of France is now composed of five orders of faculties, to wit; faculties of theology—of law—of medicine—of mathematical and physical sciences, and of letters.

It does not necessarily happen that all these five orders of faculties are to be met with in the same academy. This may occasionally be the case, but it is of rare occurrence, and an academy has seldom more than one, two, or three faculties.

At the head of every faculty is a dean, chosen from among the professors, and under the authority of the rector. He convokes and presides over its meetings, which must take place at least once a month, but oftener if he deems it necessary. The secretary, who is at the same time treasurer and keeper of the archives, conducts all the details of business; draws out papers; regulates the receipts and expenditure, and keeps the accounts of the faculties. From the responsibility of his office, he is required to furnish sufficient security for his management.

The dean performs the same duties in the faculty as the rector does in the academy. He looks after its interests, and sees that all laws, statutes, and regulations, are duly observed.

The professors of faculties are chosen in the following manner:—Those of the Catholic theological faculties on the presentation of the metropolitan bishop; those of the Protestant theological faculties on the presentation of the presidents of the consistories; those of the faculties of medicine, science, and letters, on the double presentation of the respective faculties and of the academic council; lastly, those of the faculty of law,

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after a *concours*, the form of which is determined by the royal council.

In the tenth year of the Republic the nomination of the professors was vested in the head of the government, and the choice was made from two presentations, the one by the first class of the institute, and the other by the school in which the vacancy occurred. By the decree of the 17th of March, 1808, it was determined that the professors should be named, for the first time, by the Grand Master of the university; but in future, on occasion of a vacancy, that they should be elected by *concours*;* each faculty having certain forms determined by university statutes. In 1815, the king created a commission to exercise, under the authority of the minister secretary of state for the department of the interior, the powers formerly intrusted to the grand master and his council. By another *ordonnance* of 1818, the form of election by *concours* was abolished in all the faculties, except those of law,—a proceeding which does not seem to have given satisfaction; but on what account it is not easy to say; for, of all modes of election, that by *concours* seems the least adapted to promote the prosperity of any establishment. It no doubt will always happen, when a candidate is proposed, and nominated upon presentation, that abuse will, to a certain extent, exist. Interest and favour will at times be of more weight than talents and knowledge, and he who can command the support of the higher powers may frequently exclude the humbler candidate from attaining the object of his wishes and ambition; but, whilst it cannot be denied, that many proofs do occur of an improper stretch of power in the nomination of an unqualified person to a situation he does not merit, it must also be allowed, that the voice of the public and the wish of supporting character will act sufficiently in preventing this abuse from being carried too far; and it is to be supposed that, in general, the council of instruction is too enlightened, and too anxious to obtain the good opinion of the country, to allow, in many cases, power to triumph over merit.

If there exist objections to the present form of election, there were undoubtedly much greater to the former; and it is not easy to conceive a system more ruinous, and less beneficial to the interests of science, than that of the election of professors by *concours*.

* Election by *concours* means election by examination before qualified persons.

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At first sight the objections do not strike, and nothing appears simpler and more unexceptionable than a system where those men only are elected who have, by trial before qualified persons, proved themselves able to support the dignity of the situation they wish to obtain. But is a good appearance at a public examination a proper criterion of a man's proficiency, or is it likely that men, already risen to an eminence in the literary world, and perhaps advanced in years, will risk a failure in that for which a young man just fresh from the schools may be much better qualified? Public examinations are at best but an imperfect test of abilities, and one man may, from a firmness and composure of mind, a ready mode of answering, and a confidence in his own good appearance, make a much better figure before a board of examination, than a man with talents perhaps much superior, whose timid character, diffident or confused manner, and slowness of expression, render him almost totally unfit to answer the most insignificant question with precision and without embarrassment. It is a trying thing for a man whose reputation in the world is already established, to risk the loss of it by a confused appearance in a situation where all eyes are upon him, and where, of those who are his inferiors in point of years, he may find so many his superiors in answering questions, which, perhaps, from their very insignificance, he is unable to answer at the moment.

The mode of election by *concours* exists at the present time only in the faculty of law; in the others it is abolished.

The lectures given in the faculties as well as all meetings for examination are public. Those persons who do not aspire to academic honours, or who do not inscribe, must have a ticket of entry, which is delivered to them *gratis*. The degrees granted by each faculty are of three kinds, those of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor. The faculty of law, in addition, can grant a simple certificate of capability. These degrees do not necessarily confer the rank or title of member of the university, but they are requisite before this can be obtained. To procure a degree, the aspirant must pay the regular inscription, examination, and diploma fees, which vary in the different faculties. A diploma is not valid without the signature of the rector of the academy in which the faculty sits, and the ratification of the royal council. The candidate's thesis cannot be printed or distributed without the *visa* of the dean and *permission* of the rector, and two copies of it must be forwarded to the royal council.

After a student has been examined in due form, the members

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of the faculty determine in private upon his merits. If the result be favourable, it is put in writing and signed; if unfavourable, the candidate is remitted to his studies; and, in case of another examination, he is obliged to pay the graduation fees anew.

A student before obtaining any degree, must have made a certain number of inscriptions, each during the first fortnight of every quarter, after which the books are closed. The signature of the student is necessary to render this inscription valid. No one can take an inscription in the faculties of theology, law, and medicine, without having attained the age of 16 years, and being possessed of a degree of Bachelor of Letters.* In the faculty of medicine a degree of Bachelor of Sciences is also necessary.

Upon presenting himself for inscription in these faculties, the student must shew his register of birth. If he be a minor, the consent of his parents or guardians, and his diploma of Bachelor of Letters or Sciences; if his parents or guardians do not reside in the town, he must be presented by some one domiciliated in it, who must enter his own name and address in a book kept for the purpose. Every professor is obliged, by the regulations of the school, to call over the names of the students inscribed in his books twice a month. If any student answers for another, he loses the benefit of one inscription; if a student has

* The reputation of the universities of Scotland has long been deservedly high; their professors, in general, distinguished for learning, zeal, and industry, shew themselves fully qualified for the task of instruction; yet an impression has for some time past gone abroad, that, in the higher branches of science at least, the courses of education are neither so complete nor so full as they ought to be, and as the rapid spread of intellectual knowledge would seem to demand. Upon this very interesting subject, Dr Thomson has lately addressed the patrons of the university and the royal commissioners, chiefly with reference to the medical profession. He has, with much zeal and earnestness, pointed out what he considers defects in the present system of medical education, but which, he thinks, admit of easy remedy. He has, in an especial manner, dwelt upon the very deficient state of preparatory education in the great bulk of young men entering upon the study of medicine. Those who know from experience the justice of what Dr Thomson says, must cordially join in wishing the remedy could be effectually applied. It would be useless to enter into any detail of the paramount advantages to be expected from a superior elementary instruction in the present advanced state of learning, and in a country where the humblest mechanic can obtain an education that, till of late years, was confined to a very limited portion of the community. It is certainly a defect in the system of instruction, that men should be admitted to the highest literary honours in the power of universities to bestow, without possessing those ordinary acquirements of literary and philosophical education which every person claiming the station of a gentleman ought to possess, whatever be his profession or ulterior views in life.—*Dr Johnston.*

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failed to answer to his name twice in the course of three months, he must, if he has no good excuse, lose his inscription, as the professor cannot give him a certificate of good attendance, which is absolutely necessary before he can inscribe himself. To render the inscriptions taken in one faculty of service in another, they must be accompanied with certificates of good conduct from the dean of faculty, or chief of the school, approved by the rector; and in case of these certificates being refused, the student has the right of appeal to the academic council.

Every professor of a faculty has a fixed salary of 3000 francs (£120,) and receives, besides, from examinations, inscription-fees and other sources, a sum, which varies according to circumstances. The dean receives in addition a *preciput*, the amount of which is determined by the royal council.

If the receipts of a faculty exceed the expenditure, the surplus revenue is thrown into the general treasury of the university, to be applied to the advancement of public instruction.

In the order of faculties, those of theology come first, and are divided into two classes, catholic and protestant; the former connected with the metropolitan churches; the latter, which are two in number, situated, the one for Lutherans at Strasbourg, the other for Calvinists at Montauban. Each faculty of theology has at least three professors for ecclesiastical history, doctrinal theology, (*dogme*), and evangelical morals. There are frequently also chairs for the Hebrew tongue and for pulpit eloquence.

To obtain a degree of Bachelor in Theology, the aspirant must be twenty years of age, be a Bachelor of the Faculty of Letters, and have completed at least a three year's curriculum in one of the faculties. To obtain the degree of Licentiate, he must have been a Bachelor for at least one year, and must have defended two theses, one of which is in Latin. To obtain the degree of Doctor, he must defend a final and general thesis.

The decree of 1811 determines, that to become professor or joint professor (*agregé*) in a faculty of theology, a degree of Doctor is requisite; to become a bishop, vicar-general, or superior of a seminary of education, a degree of Licentiate; and to become a member of chapter, curate, teacher in a seminary, or almoner of a school, the degree of Bachelor.

The fees of examination in the faculty of theology are,

For a right of Diploma, .	fr. 10	(*l.*0 8 0)
For the degree of Bachelor .	15	(*l.*0 12 0)
Licentiate, .	15	(*l.*0 12 0)
Doctor, .	50	(*l.*2 0 0)

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The faculties of law have been very little changed in their organization since the decree of the 13th March, 1804: they are nine in number, and are situated in the towns of Paris, Strasbourg, Dijon, Grenoble; Aix, Tolouse, Poitiers, Rennes, and Caen.

To take an inscription in this faculty, the student must have attained the age of sixteen years, and be possessed of a degree of Bachelor of Letters. The periods of study are, for a simple certificate of capacity, one year; for Bachelor and Licentiate three years; and for a Doctor four. During the first year the student must attend, 1. Natural Law, Law of Nations, General Law; 2. A first course of French Civil Law; 3. History of Roman and French Law. During his second year, 1. Institutes of Roman Law; 2. Second course of French Civil Law; 3. Civil Procedure, (*Procedure Civile*). During his third year, 1. A third course of French Civil Law; 2. Commercial Law; 3. Administrative Law, (*Droit Administratif.*) During his fourth year, which is necessary to obtain a degree of Doctor, 1. Institutes of Roman Law; 2. History of Law; 3. Administrative Law. Students, unless they have a sufficient excuse, must undergo their first examination at the close of their fourth inscription: they cannot take their seventh inscription in Paris, or their sixth in the departments, without having passed this examination.

Inscriptions are only valid when given at the expiration of each term, and accompanied by a certificate of attendance for that period. The examinators for conferring degrees are the professors and their assistants; the inspectors general have the right of presence, and, if they deem it requisite, may themselves examine the candidate.*

Several candidates may be admitted to examination at the

* In the Lombardo-Venetian Universities the curriculum for the study of law is as follows:—

First year. Winter.—1. Encyclopedic introduction to the study of Law; Natural Private Law. 2. General Statistics of the States of Europe, and particularly of the Austrian Monarchy. 3. Agriculture (not obligatory). Summer.—1. Natural Public Right; during the two last months, Criminal Law. 2. General Statistics. 3. Agriculture. *Second year.* Winter.—1. Roman Law. 2. Ecclesiastical Law. Summer.—1. Roman, and during the two last months, Feudal Law. 2. Ecclesiastical Law. *Third year.* Winter.—1. Universal Civil Law of Austria, and the difference between it and the Civil Law of France. 2. Mercantile Law. Summer.—1. Civil Law of Austria, &c. 2. Maritime Law. *Fourth year.* Winter.—1. Political Sciences. 2. Juridical Procedure, with Practical Exercises. Summer.—Continuation of the winter courses. *Prospetto degli studii dell' Imp. R. Univ. di Padova.*

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same time, but not exceeding eight. The examination must last one hour for one candidate, two hours for two, three hours for four, and five hours for eight. The number of examinators whose presence is requisite to give a certificate of capacity is 2. A degree of Bachelor, 3.—Do. Licentiate, 4.—Do. Doctor, 5.

The fees of inscription, graduation, and examination, in the faculty of law, are as follows :—

		Francs.			
Each inscription,	- -	15	L.0	12	0
Examination-fee for certificate of capacity,		30	L.1	4	0
Do. Bachelor or Licentiate,	for the first year, -	60	L.2	8	0
	second year, -	60	L.2	8	0
	third year, -	90	L.3	12	0
Do. for degree of Doctor,	- -	90	L.3	12	0
The act of publicity for each,	- -	120	L.4	16	0
Fee for certificate of capacity,	- -	40	L.1	12	0
Do. diploma of Bachelor,	-	50	L.2	0	0
Do. do. Licentiate,	- -	80	L.3	4	0
Do. do. Doctor,	- -	100	L.4	0	0
Dues for the *visa* and *ratification* of a degree of Bachelor,	- - -	36	L.1	8	10
Do. do. Licentiate,	-	48	L.1	18	6
Do. do. Doctor,	- -	48	L.1	18	6

Each faculty of law must have at least five professors and two assistants : the number may be increased at royal pleasure.

The school of law in the capital is, from its great importance, divided into two sections, in each of which there are three professors of civil law, one professor of the elements of natural law, the law of nations and public general law, one professor of the institutions of Roman law in relation to French, one professor of civil and criminal procedure and of criminal law. In one of the sections there is a professor of commercial law ; in the other, a professor for positive public law and French administrative law, a professor for the philosophical history of Roman and French law, and another for political economy.

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FEMALE EDUCATION.

[From the authors mentioned in former numbers.]

Domestic and personal improvement.—Young women should endeavour to acquire a knowledge of family affairs, as there is no situation where the general principles of frugality are not necessary, on the score both of discretion and charity. In the mean while, the acquisition will be honourable, and the study useful. It not only becomes women, but it will employ their minds innocently and virtuously at hours which they might be tempted to spend in a very different manner. The subject is not intricate, yet it admits of a considerable detail, and will take up some time. The learning to write a fair hand and to cast accounts with facility, the looking into the dispositions of servants, the informing yourselves about the prices of every thing needful for a family, together with the best methods and properest seasons for providing it, the observing whatever relates to cleanliness and neatness in the furniture and apartments of a house, the understanding how to deal with domestics, tradesmen, and others,—above all, the obtaining every possible light with relation to the nursing, management, and education of children; these and such like articles will, if I mistake not, furnish ample scope for the exercise of the faculties in the pursuit of what I term domestic accomplishments.

Economy is so important a part of a woman's character, so necessary to her own happiness, and so essential to her performing properly the duties of a wife and of a mother, that it ought to have the precedence of all other accomplishments and take its rank next to the first duties of life. It is, nevertheless, an *art* as well as a *virtue*; and many well-meaning persons, from ignorance or from inconsideration, are strangely deficient in it. Indeed, it is too often wholly neglected in a young woman's education, and she is sent from her father's house to govern a family without the least degree of that knowledge, which should qualify her for it; this is the source of much inconvenience: for though experience and attention may supply by degrees the want of instruction, yet this requires time; the family in the mean time may get into habits which are very difficult to alter, and, what is worse, the husband's opinion of his wife's incapacity may be fixed too strongly to suffer him ever to think justly of her gradual improvement. I would therefore earnest-

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ly advise young women to make use of every opportunity they can find for the laying in some store of knowledge on this subject, before they are called upon to practise it; by observing what passes before them, by consulting prudent and experienced mistresses of families; and by entering in a book a memorandum of every new piece of intelligence they acquire, they may afterwards compare these with more mature observations, and make additions and corrections as they see occasion.

Ladies who are fond of needlework generally choose to consider that as a principal part of good housewifery; and though I cannot look upon it as of equal importance with the due regulation of a family, yet in a middling rank and with a moderate fortune it is a necessary part of a woman's duty, and a considerable article in expense is saved by it. Many young ladies make almost every thing they wear, by which means they can make a genteel figure at a small expense. This is the most profitable and desirable kind of work, and as much of it as can be done consistently with a due attention to the health and the improvement of the mind, and to the discharge of other duties, I should think highly commendable. But, as I do not wish young women to impose on the world by their appearance, I should be contented to see them worse dressed, rather than see their whole time employed in preparations for it, or those hours given to it which are needful to make their bodies strong and active by exercise, or their minds rational by reading. Absolute idleness is inexcusable in a woman, because the needle is always at hand for those intervals in which she cannot be otherwise employed. If young women are industrious, and if they keep good hours, they will find time for all their proper employments. Early rising and a good disposition of time is essential to economy. The necessary orders and examination into household affairs should be despatched as soon in the day and as privately as possible, that they may not break in upon conversation or reading in the remainder of the day. If you defer any thing that is necessary, you may be tempted by company or unforeseen avocations to forget or neglect it: hurry and irregularity will ensue, with expensive expedients to supply the defect.

The domestic economy of a family is entirely a woman's province, and furnishes a variety of subjects for the exertion both of good sense and good taste. It ought to engage much of the time and attention of every mistress of a family; nor can they be excused from this by any extent of fortune, though with a

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narrow one the ruin that follows the neglect of it may be more immediate.

The intention of young women being taught needlework, knitting, and such like, is not on account of the intrinsic value of all they can do with their hands, which is trifling; but to enable them to judge more perfectly of that kind of work and to direct the execution of it in others. Another principal end is to enable them to fill up in a tolerably agreeable way some of the many solitary hours they must necessarily pass at home. It is a great article in the happiness of life to have your pleasures as independent of others as possible.

There is not a quality I think of greater importance for women to possess, than that collective decisive spirit which rests on itself, which enables them to see where their true happiness lies, and to pursue it with the most determined resolution.

But, besides an attention to domestic duties and female accomplishments, women should also cultivate their mental powers, and redeem their time from endless visitings and other follies by reading alternately to one another, when custom or conveniency engages them to work together. Such an exercise would not only enlarge the stock of ideas in each individual, but also present materials on which their minds might operate with an energy quickened by mutual exertion: "As iron sharpeneth iron, so doth the face of a woman her friend." You, my fair pupils, cannot be offended that, to suit the quotation to the argument, I should here read woman for man. How smoothly have I seen those hours steal away, which were thus employed in a litttle ring of intelligent females, all sweetly solicitous to improve and be improved by each other.

But perhaps my little friend is afraid lest the men should suspect her of being what the world styles in derision a Learned Lady! Is this, then, a character so easily acquired, that you are in danger of it the moment you emerge from the depth of ignorance and begin to think and speak like a reasonable being? You are over hasty in your apprehension. A learned lady is by no means a creature that we run the risk of being often shocked with. For my own part I have never strictly speaking seen such a one; and when at any time I have met with what approached to that character, I must profess I found nothing to excite terror. But possibly you mean a smatterer in learning. There, indeed, I join with you in wishing you may never incur the imputation.

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That men are frighted at female pedantry is very certain. A woman that affects to dispute, to decide, to dictate on every subject, that watches or makes opportunities of throwing out scraps of literature or shreds of philosophy in every company, that engrosses the conversation as if she alone were qualified to entertain, that betrays in short a boundless intemperance of tongue together with an inextinguishable passion for shining by the splendour of her supposed talents, such a woman is truly insufferable. At first, perhaps, she may be considered merely as an object of ridicule, but she soon grows into an object of aversion. Be assured, however, that where a character so unnatural appears, it is not the effect of too much knowledge but of too little. The deep river flows on with a noble stillness, while the shallow stream runs babbling along. Suspicious of her own deficiency the pedant we describe suspects lest you should discover it, but instead of learning caution from that consciousness, she strives to dazzle you with the little she does know, or else, what is more probable, elated with that which to her circumscribed view appears great, she cannot restrain herself from displaying it on all occasions; when farther progress and higher ground would have taught her modesty, by showing her immense regions of truth yet untravelled, of which she had no conception before.

In fact, we find that the best scholars of either sex are the least ostentatious. It will ever be so where erudition is accompanied with judgment and matured by reflection. Take care to preserve sober sense and unassuming manners: far from giving disgust by literary attainments to any person whose regard is of moment, you will give pleasure to every thinking man and woman of your acquaintance. I am even inclined to believe that in conversation you claim no preeminence, but instead of pretending to teach are willing to learn, instead of courting applause are ready to confer it, instead of proudly directing are content quietly to follow the current of discourse; every creature living will be delighted with your deportment, will listen with attention and even deference to one who has thus learned that the noblest improvement of superior knowledge is superior humility. The notion that letters are apt to generate self-conceit, because it cannot be denied that the abuse of them has often done so, will in those of the least candour or discernment serve to heighten esteem for her who considers an excellent understanding as only next in value to an excellent temper. If on any occasion it should happen, that the foolish or the worthless of one sex or of the other are prejudiced against a young wo-

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man for discovering though without parade a cultivated mind, what then ? Is not the single plaudit of a real judge sufficient to outweigh a whole theatre of others ? But the grand use of an affection for knowledge, as to the point before us, is that of preventing idleness and dissipation, which it certainly does where such affection is properly regulated ; and this cannot be repeated too frequently nor pressed too powerfully. The human mind was made for action. In virtuous action consists its highest enjoyment. It will not, it cannot, continue long unemployed, especially, during the sprightly season of youth. But now there are many young ladies, whose situation does not supply a sphere of domestic exercise sufficient to fill up that part of their time which is not necessarily appropriated to female occupations and innocent amusements. What then shall they do with it or with themselves, if books are not called in to their assistance ? Pursue the inquiry of your own minds.

If young women waste in trivial amusement the prime season for improvement, which is between the ages of sixteen and twenty, they will hereafter bitterly regret the loss, when they come to feel themselves inferior in knowledge to almost every one they converse with ; and above all, if they should ever be mothers, when they feel their own inability to direct and assist the pursuits of their children, they will then find ignorance a severe mortification and a real evil. Let this animate their industry ; and let not a modest opinion of their own capacities be a discouragement to their endeavours after knowledge. A moderate understanding with diligent and well directed application will go much farther than a more lively genius, if attended with that impatience and inattention which too often accompany quick parts. It is not for want of capacity that so many women are such trifling, insipid companions, so ill qualified for the friendship and conversation of a sensible man, or for the task of governing and instructing a family ; it is much oftener from the neglect of exercising the talents which they really have, and from omitting to cultivate a taste for intellectual improvement : by this neglect they lose the sincerest of pleasures, a pleasure which would remain when almost every other forsakes them, of which neither fortune nor age can deprive them, and which would be a comfort and resource in almost every possible situation in life.

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SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

[In the following paragraphs our readers will recognize the style of the authors so often mentioned in the parental department of our work.]

Moral education.—A most important maxim in education is to allow children more personal liberty than perhaps is customary, and less authority over those who have the care of them: to permit them to do more themselves, without suffering them to exact so much from others. Thus they will soon be accustomed to adapt their wishes to their strength, and will feel but little the want of what is not within their power.

When a child who is no longer deceived by his senses, screams and whimpers, and holds out his hands, he is either commanding the object to come to him, or ordering you to carry him to it. In the first case carry him to the object slowly and by degrees; in the second only seem not to hear him, and the more he cries, the less you should attend to him. It is right that he should soon be accustomed neither to command men, for he is not their master, nor things, for they cannot understand him. Thus, if a child sees any thing he wishes for, and you intend to give it him, it is better to carry him to the object, than to bring the object to him; and from this custom he will draw a conclusion adapted to his age, and which there is no other method of teaching him.

If a child has acquired a habit of crying when he is neither in pain nor confined, the only way to break him of it is not to pay him any attention nor even seem to hear him, and he will soon learn to reserve his tears till he is really in pain. Another method is to divert his attention to some other object; but in this case you must be very careful, lest he discover that your intention is to amuse him, and you must let him play without supposing you are thinking about him. In this respect most nurses are very foolish and absurd.

When a child first begins to speak, do not torment yourself to find out what he says. To expect to be always listened to is a species of command, which in a child should never be suffered. It is enough if you are attentive to his real wants; it is his business to make you understand what is not necessary.

Do not be in haste to oblige him to speak; he will learn soon enough, when he is sensible of the use of speech. Children

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that are brought too forward with their tongues, have not time either to pronounce well, or to understand what they are made to say; whereas, when left to themselves, they will practise those syllables which they find the easiest, and by the help of gestures will make themselves understood, and give you their words before they receive yours. Thus they will not adopt any words till they understand their meaning, and, not being hurried into using them, will first observe in what sense they are employed, before they admit them into their vocabulary.

When children are able to speak, they cry less. This progress is natural; one language being now substituted for another. If they can tell you they are in pain, why should they say it by crying?

When a child that is able to ask for what he wants, cries to obtain his wishes the sooner, or to overcome a refusal, his request should be positively denied. If real want has prompted him to ask, you should immediately do what he desires; but to yield merely to his tears would encourage him to shed them, teach him to doubt your affection toward him, and lead him to believe importunity has more power over you than real benevolence. If he does not believe you to be good, he will himself soon become depraved, if he believes you to be weak, he will become obstinate: you must therefore immediately grant, what you do not intend ultimately to refuse.

Above all, take care never to teach your children those idle forms of politeness, those magical words, which they are accustomed to use at pleasure to induce all those about them to comply with their wishes, and to obtain instantly whatever they desire.

In the ceremonious educations of the children of the rich, no pains are spared to make them politely imperious by teaching them certain phrases, which if they employ, no one dare refuse them. Their requests have neither the tone nor manner of supplication; they are equally arrogant, nay more so when they ask than when they command, because they are more sure of being obeyed. It may be seen at once that '*if you please*' signifies in their mouths '*I choose*,' and that '*pray*' means '*I will have it*.' What admirable politeness! the only tendency of which is to change the real meaning of words, and to teach them never to speak without commanding. As I am less fearful of my pupil's being vulgar than arrogant, I would much rather have him request me to do any thing by saying, '*Do so or so*,' than that he should command me by saying, '*Pray do*.' It is

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not the phrase that is important, but the sense in which it is employed.

Considering infancy in itself, there is not a being more feeble, more helpless, more at the mercy of every one about it, or who stands in greater need of pity, of care, and of protection, than a young child. Does it not seem as if it looked so gentle and so engaging, that every one who comes near it should be interested for its welfare and anxious to give it assistance?—What then can be more disgusting or more contrary to nature, than to see a quarrelsome and imperious child, commanding every one about him, and impudently assuming an air of authority with those, without whose aid he must inevitably perish.

Do you know what is the most certain way to render a child wretched? It is to accustom him to obtain all his wishes, for, as his desires will increase in proportion to the ease with which they are satisfied, the time will sooner or later arrive, when you must necessarily disappoint him, and this unexpected disappointment will give him more pain, than the not having what he wanted.

As I would have children left at full liberty to play all their innocent pranks, it is both convenient and right to put every thing out of their way that is expensive, and leave nothing within their reach that is brittle or valuable Their chambers should be fitted up with clumsy, thick furniture; no looking-glasses, no china, no ornaments of luxury. But if notwithstanding all your precautions a child should do some mischief by breaking something useful, do not punish him for your own negligence, do not scold him, do not let him hear a single word of blame or reproach, do not let him even see that he has vexed you.

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It is not enough that children have wise and discreet parents, who employ too faithful a deputy; no, they must also be guarded from the interposition of friends and relations. Nobody surely can mistake me so far as to think I would exclude relations from the respect due to them; by no means: they may assist with their counsels in the absence of the children, or they may encourage filial duty in the absence of the parents, but in general, they should not be allowed to interfere in the management, nor on any account thwart the parents' injunctions, or discover opposite sentiments in the children's hearing.

A child after it is six months old should be accustomed to various faces; be put into the arms of various people, young or old, fine or ordinary; so as to make every one they see in

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some degree familiar. Parents are to make their children happy, keep them active, smiling, and lively; and this they cannot do, if they cherish in them a dislike of going to any other but themselves.

Parents should by all means accustom themselves to deny their children some things, even such as are innocent and reasonable, in order to familiarize them to disappointments, that they may bear them the better. Besides, by this method, every grant from the parents will be esteemed a favour and received with gratitude; whereas the granting every thing they ask destroys the very life and spirit of compliance, and it ceases to be a favour. A little judgment will show parents how to vary these grants and denials, if they do but attend to them; and if children are under any degree of regulation nothing can be more easy. Yet this by no means implies, that children are not sometimes to have what they like; far from it: but by sometimes denying their requests, it puts it in the power of parents to confer many little favours on them, that otherwise they could not be sensible of. For example; there are two sorts of meat at table equally innocent; in that case parents may sometimes without impropriety give a child its choice, and by this sort of indulgence you may discover if a child has any particular antipathies.

Parents should study to win their children's hearts, and thus will obedience become a pleasure, whereas, if they are kept at a distance by an austere behaviour, or are treated in a cold, lifeless, insipid manner, they will be apt to doubt of their parents' affection, and be induced to seek comfort from others. Love and fear are the two great springs of human actions; both which must be maintained, both should by turns appear, but love must be predominant. Of all the important steps necessary for forming the minds of children, and for conducting them through life, with happiness to themselves and others, nothing is more truly so, than the animating their actions with well tempered affections; it makes them open, generous, and noble, and it takes off from that narrowness of mind and heart so disadvantageous to themselves and so detrimental to society.

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Human intellect has its bounds, and no one man can know every thing. A choice, then, should be made of proper objects of instruction, as well as of the proper time for teaching them. Of those branches of knowledge which are attainable, some are

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false and some are useless, while others serve only to nourish the pride of those who possess them. The few, that really contribute to our well-being, are alone worthy of the researches of the wise, and consequently of a child you would wish to render wise. It is not necessary, then, to know all things, but only such as are really useful. From these we must further deduct such as require an understanding completely formed, or presuppose a knowledge of the moral relations of man, which a child cannot possess, and those which, though true in themselves, will dispose an inexperienced mind to reason falsely on other subjects.

When you think it time to transform a child's sensations into ideas, do not jump all at once from sensible objects to intellectual. It is by the first we must arrive at the latter. In the first operations of the mind let the senses always be the guides. Let your pupil have no book but the world, no other instruction than facts. The child that reads, does not think; he does nothing but read; he does not improve himself, he merely learns words. Lead your pupil to be attentive to the phenomena of nature, and you will soon render him inquisitive; but in order to awaken his curiosity be not in a hurry to satisfy it. Propose to him questions adapted to his understanding, and let him resolve them. Do not let him believe any thing merely because you have told it him, but because he understands it. Do not teach him the sciences, let him find them out himself. If you substitute authority for reason, he will never reason more, but become a mere puppet governed by the opinions of others.

STUDY OF THE CLASSICS.

[In our last number an interesting and instructive article was transcribed on the importance of the study of the natural sciences; and it is with great satisfaction that we have it in our power to offer to our readers the following thoughts on the study of the ancient languages. This, as we have several times mentioned, is a subject on which we have ourselves been misunderstood. The Journal of Education has been more than once spoken of as a publication hostile to classical literature. This mistake we can attribute to nothing else than the hasty and su-

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perfidial manner of reading periodical works, which is too customary even with those who subscribe for them, and profess to like them, or to the facility with which any report, true or false, is circulated through a reading community.

Classical learning we have always deemed one of the finest means of mental improvement; and of its importance to the professions there is, we believe, but one opinion. In common with others, however, we have doubted the advantage of the indiscriminate teaching of the languages to all the youth of any community, or even to a large proportion. If education is to be useful at all, it must be adapted, in some measure at least, to the probable condition and occupation of individuals. Let all professional men, we would say, and all men of leisure, and all men, in fact, who can afford the time, the money, and the sedentary application, learn the ancient languages. But do not let a father think he is doing right in sending his son to study languages for a very few years at an academy or a college, while the lad is disposed to be a farmer, a mechanic, or a manufacturer, or a merchant,—unless, indeed, all the other, and especially the practical, parts of his education, are in proportion to his literature. Till within a few years, we had few or no institutions among us, where a practical education could be obtained, beyond instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. To have a good education, or, in other words, a sufficient one for the mental character of the individual, it was a matter of necessity that a youth should undergo a preparatory course, at least, of classical study; because it was only at an academy or classical school that education was carried beyond its elementary parts. Now our gymnasia and high schools offer a superior, and yet a practical education, to all who desire it. The natural sciences and the modern languages, not to speak of other facilities, are afforded independently of classical discipline. The elements of useful knowledge, take the place of grammars and dictionaries; if the pupil is destined for active business. This is what ought to be the case, and especially in a country where it is the desire of every enlightened parent to give his sons all the education he can afford them. And, so far from being detrimental to the course of classical learning, this is the true way to promote its interests, by leaving it for those who have time and other means to pursue it. As a fact worth noticing here, we may mention that the proportion of classical students is not diminished by the recent impulse given to popular education. The result has been to diffuse a spirit for improvement through all

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classes of the community, and to increase the whole number of of the educated.

Some articles from foreign works, copied for the useful thoughts they contained, rather than for their original intention, were inserted in our early numbers; and these, perhaps, were not freely enough interpreted by some of our readers. The tone of our publication was therefore said to be *anti-classical*. This notion of the *tone* of a publication is a very injurious thing. A journal of any sort, we had thought, is useful or otherwise, just as it does or does not enter freely and fully into the subject to which it is devoted, without any regard to party opinion, or party tone; leaving its readers to judge for themselves, and to canvass freely all opinions submitted to them, and to sift and examine every thing offered as a fact. In presenting the articles mentioned, we never offered them as an exact expression of our own opinions, and we repeatedly spoke of their application to American institutions, as merely remote and incidental. On suitable occasions our own opinions on the subject have been given distinctly; and, as repetition is tiresome, it is sometimes a great relief to find one's own thoughts clearly, fully, and satisfactorily expressed by another, and especially by one to whom public attention may be justly turned as a competent authority on any subject of an intellectual or literary character.

The following article is part of a letter addressed by the Rev. Professor Stuart of Andover, to the editor of the Quarterly Journal of the American (Theological) Education Society. The eminence of the writer forbids any commendation of ours to enforce the sentiments which he so justly expresses.]

In entering upon the consideration of the topic before me, I must endeavour fairly to state the question which it involves, so as to guard against any mistaken apprehensions in respect to what I am discussing.

The question is not, whether every youth of our country, who receives an education at all which may, in any tolerable sense, be called liberal, must study the Greek and Roman classics. For one, I answer most fully and clearly in the negative. Many youth may be well educated for departments of active life, to superintend the affairs of agriculture, of manufactures, of commerce, of various arts, and of some of the practical sciences; nay, of the army and of the navy, in some departments; who never read a Roman or a Greek author, in his original language. I will not say that in any of these theatres of action, he would

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not be *better* prepared for his business, by a knowledge of the classics, than without that knowledge; for I do not believe this to be true. Other things being equal, the man possessed of this knowledge, independently of the source of high and rational pleasure which he has within his own power in consequence of it, and which no adverse fortune can wrest from him, must always have his mind more enlarged and liberalized, than it would have been without attention to the studies in question; so that whether he is an agriculturist, a merchant, an artificer, a soldier, or a seaman, he will have more influence over others, more satisfaction in himself, and more power to make improvements in his department of action, than if he were entirely unacquainted with classical studies. KNOWLEDGE IS POWER, in every department of human life and action. The necessary consequence of it is, more or less expansion of the mind; and as the sequel of this, more enlarged powers of reasoning, of comprehending, of communicating thoughts to others, and of making improvements.

I think it will not be denied by any enlightened man, after the lapse of so many ages, and the experience of all the civilized world, that the study of Greek and Roman classics does *enlarge* the minds of youth; nay, such a one will not deny, that even the study of Cherokee, or of any language which gives no access to literature, would enlarge the distinguishing powers of the mind, and render stronger and more tenacious the faculty of the memory. Other things being equal, then, a youth liberally educated for any department of action, must be a gainer by a knowledge of the classics.

Still, as it is averred, that the sacrifice of time necessary to make the acquaintance in question, more than overbalances the advantages derived from them; and as there are very many youth in our land, who aspire to a good education, but whose circumstances do not allow them to consume much time or money in acquiring it; so I would not at all insist that the study of the classics should make an essential part of their education. My sincere wish is, to see schools, in every part of our country, adapted to train youth in the best manner, for all the various departments of human action and usefulness. I do not even wish them all to be run in one mould. I delight in seeing all the varieties of taste, and all the diverse phases of understanding and feeling which different employments, circles of action, education, and objects in view, give to the various classes that compose a mixed and well organized society. I must explicitly,

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therefore, acquit myself of being understood as disapproving of agricultural and scientific gymnasia, or of any other kind of institution whatever, by which the means of communicating knowledge useful to any class of our citizens may be obtained. I do most sincerely rejoice to see them rising up in various parts of our land; and I hope, that ere long they will be so multiplied by public and private beneficence, as to afford opportunities for a liberal education, in every honest branch of human employment.

The question, whether such institutions as those of which I have just spoken, can be safely and propefly connected with our higher collegiate institutions, is a distinct question from that which has respect to the existence of gymnasia for the arts and sciences. It is one on which I am not called now to give any opinion; one, too, which the experiments that are making will soon decide; and one, I may add, that can be fully decided only by experiment. It is proper, that those who doubt the success of this arrangement, should wait for the issue which experiment will give; and as I class myself with the number of doubters, I consent, before my mind is ultimately made up, to wait for the instruction which must result from the experiments that are now in operation. My sincere wish is, that the experience of those who are making trial, may not prove to be too dearly bought; and that the community may ultimately gain some important advantages resulting from this experience.

In classing myself among the *doubters*, however, about the mixed courses of education in our seminaries, I view them, and speak of them, as they are, *colleges*, and not *universities*. The question, whether a *proper university* might extend its departments of instruction to every thing that needs to be taught among us, would be a very different one from the question, whether our colleges, arranged as they have been, and still are, can do it with the prospect of success.

I leave the *general* question of education, after these explanations, and contract my circle of observation. And in order to adapt this to the subject immediately before me, I must omit the consideration of the advantages to be derived from a study of the Greek and Roman classics, by those who are to become civilians, lawyers, and physicians. There are men in each of these departments, in our country, who are wanting neither in ability nor inclination to defend those studies, from which they have themselves reaped so ample a harvest; and who surely will not see them laid aside, or spoken of with levity or con-

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temely, without appearing openly for their vindication. To them I most cheerfully leave the task of maintaining the respective claims of their own departments.

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Here, then comes the question, for the discussion of which, all I have yet said is designed to be only preparatory. *Is the study of the Latin and Greek classics important to those who are educated for the ministry? And on what grounds does an affirmative answer to this question rest?*

It were easy to write a volume here, but I must content myself with presenting a mere synopsis of contents which might be expanded into one. This I shall do, with as much brevity as possible; appealing to those who may read this communication, with a request that they would supply the thoughts to which the hints that I shall give may lead; and then weigh the whole maturely, before they pass sentence upon the doings of the Education Society.

The study of the Greek and Roman classics, as now arranged in our country, usually occupies a good portion of the time that elapses, between the ages of nine and fourteen or fifteen years, *i. e.* it occupies some five or six years, for boys; but much less than this, for young men who come to it at a more advanced age. But whether more or less time be devoted to it, between the ages of seven and twenty five, it will be allowed by all, that the time is precious; for this is the golden age of life, in regard to the means which it proffers of laying the foundations of future acquisition and usefulness broad and deep. Is the pursuit of classical literature worth the time expended upon it? In particular is it important enough for one who designs to become a minister of the gospel, to justify the expending of so much time and money upon it.

Without hesitation, and from the deepest and fullest convic tion of my heart, I answer, Yes. I would I could answer so loud, as to be heard in every part of my country, and that even the recesses of the wilderness might listen, and consider well the subject.

My reasons for such an answer shall now be stated.

(1) It will not be denied, that *the study of any foreign language improves the faculty of memory in youth.* Certainly, then, the study of Latin and Greek will aid in such improvement. Nay, it will do this in a manner that is peculiar, on account of the deep interests which are connected with the knowledge of them, and which make them an object of desire to every youth, who wishes

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to become eminent in usefulness. The memory, like every other faculty of body and mind, is directly improved by exercise; exercise habitual and often repeated. And as language is a gift which distinguishes man from all the creation around him, and the acquisition of it a thing consonant with our nature and adapted to our faculties; so the exercises necessary to acquire it, are peculiarly suited to the powers of which we are possessed. They improve and strengthen them.

These considerations are so obvious, that I need not dwell upon them. Equally so is the

(2) Consideration, which I shall now suggest, viz:—*that the faculty of making nice distinctions between things that differ, is greatly improved by the study of the classics.* No one, at all acquainted with any foreign language, can be ignorant of the fact, that there are, in such a language, a multitude of words of almost all sorts, which can never be exactly translated by any words in our own tongue, that directly and fully correspond to them. The obvious reason of this is, that every nation has more or less of habits, manners, customs, laws, modes of thinking and reasoning, natural objects, climate, soil, productions, government, foreign relations, &c. that are *peculiar* to itself. Now as all the language which is current among any people, arises from the necessity of communicating their thoughts, feelings, and desires to each other; and as these are most intimately connected with and dependant upon the *peculiar* objects, &c. existing among them; so it follows, of course, that the language of each nation will have more or less in it, which cannot be translated literally and verbatim into the language of any foreign nation, because this language has not been modified by the peculiarities which have operated on the language of another nation. One single example will show what I mean. Let any one translate into English, the Roman *tribunus, consul, praetor, aedilis*, etc.; and on the other hand, let him translate into Latin, *the brig was hulled by a broadside from a man of war.* A very few experiments of this nature, will throw full light on what I have just affirmed, and will serve to satisfy any reflecting mind, that great care, and great power of making nice distinctions, must be requisite, in order to translate out of one language into another, especially when the second is very different in its character, and remote as to time and place, from the first.

All must admit, now, that the power of making nice distinctions, of separating things which to the ignorant and inexperienced appear to be alike, but which are truly diverse, is one of

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the most important powers ever acquired and exercised by the human mind. I must believe, that linguistic study, directed as it should be, viz. : to acquire a knowledge of *things* that are designated by the words of a foreign language, is one of the most important means of improving and strengthening the faculty of nice discernment, that is within the reach of any young man. If I might be permitted to add my own personal testimony on this point, I would say, that I owe more to it, as to what little of acquisition I have made in this way, than to all my other studies. In early life, I was enamoured with mathematics, and pursued them with great delight, and, (unless my instructers flattered me,) with some success. Afterwards I engaged in the study of law, and read with deep interest and unabated ardour, among other books, Fearne on Contingent Remainders ; a book which is yet, I believe, without a parallel in its department, for acuteness, profoundness, and nicety of distinctions. I derived sensible benefit from this study. It created a thirst for works of a solid nature, in which discussion and reasoning were employed. I have read also, with much pleasure and improvement, Brown's philosophical works, which have lately been spread over our country. But after all, I must say, from the fullest conviction, that the modicum of improvement which I have made, is to be principally attributed to the study of the sacred classics ; and in connexion with these, the classics of Greece and Rome. It is not so much the *information*, that I obtain from the Latin and Greek classics, which I prize, as it is the stimulus to the mind which the study of them affords, and the discipline in making nice distinctions, in matters of taste, and language, and thought, which this demands. It is not all the arguments, nor all the confident assertions, nor all the authority of men in any station or credit on earth, that can alter my conviction on this subject. What I feel and am conscious of, I cannot be led to deny by any assertions, however confident. What I know from experience, I cannot renounce, out of complaisance to theory. I can only add, here, that I am utterly astonished to see and hear those, who have professedly devoted themselves to the study of the classics, come forward and avow that it is comparatively worthless. I can only say, that as they have studied them, this may be true, for aught that I know ; but a mistaken and empty pursuit of classical knowledge can never prove, that one well directed may not produce a harvest truly fruitful.

But I am dwelling too long on this topic, which I touch with a trembling hand, lest I may seem to say something that delica-

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cy would forbid me to say. I return to the assigning of reasons, why candidates for the sacred office should be accomplished for higher usefulness in their department, by the pursuit of linguistic study.

(3) The *study of the classics greatly improves the ability to command words adapted exactly to express the shades of ideas, which one wishes to communicate.* The difficulties of translating rightly, that have been suggested under my second head, afford a ready solution of this problem. How can one transfer ideas from a foreign language to his own, to which there are no words in his own that exactly correspond? He cannot, without periphrasis; and periphrasis, in order to be accurate, requires the greatest nicety of attention. He will ordinarily make a great number of trials, in translating a very difficult word or phrase, before he succeeds to his satisfaction. This very trial, often repeated, is that discipline above all others, which leads him to a nice and exact choice of language, in order to communicate ideas; and this is one of the most important acquisitions made by education, either for a speaker or a writer.

I have never yet engaged in any exercise, which afforded more salutary discipline of this sort, than that of translating difficult passages from a foreign language. I have sometimes spent whole hours, on even a preposition or an adverb; but I am very certain, that few of my hours have been spent to better purpose, in their influence over the habits of the mind.

(4) *The study of the classics is one of the best means of improving the taste for good writing and speaking, and thus of promoting an important purpose in respect to improvement in eloquence.* Who would not send a young man, entering upon the business of a painter, to study the works of Raphael, of Michael Angelo, of Correggio, and others of a similar character? Who would not send a young statuary to study the models of the Grecian artists? I hold it to be useless to bring forward arguments, after the lapse of so many centuries, during which all men have been agreed, to show that some of the finest and most perfect models of style and eloquence, are found in the Greek and Roman classics. I may take this for granted.

The same common sense, then, that would send a young painter to study the works of Raphael, would send a youth, who is aspiring to be a public speaker and writer, to study the Greek and Roman classics. We are creatures of imitation.—We need excitement, powerful excitement, in order to develope the talents which we have. Both of these principles act upon a

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young man, who engages in a proper manner in the study of the classics.—How can the influence of such exquisite models upon a susceptible youth be otherwise than beneficial in regard to style? It cannot. This influence may be lost by studies ill directed. It may fail in some cases, where it finds no adequate understanding and native taste on which it can operate. But this is no argument against the nature and beneficial effects of the thing itself. If it be said, now, that the study of modern European languages may answer the same purposes, which I have enumerated under my first, second, and third heads; yet here is a distinction, under my fourth head, which separates the Roman and Greek classics widely from most modern languages. The German, the French, the Italian, the Spanish, though all abounding in works worthy of perusal, do not afford, in point of taste and eloquence, any thing that will compare with the finest Greek and Roman models. I know some will dissent from this opinion; but I believe those who have studied both the ancient and the modern, will in general agree with me.

(5) *The study of Latin and Greek authors is necessary to a good knowledge of the nature and structure of our own language.* Our language is confessedly made up, in a great proportion, of Latin and Greek words, i. e. of words derived from those languages. I venture on the assertion, therefore, that our language cannot be *radically* understood, as to its grammar and etymology, without a knowledge of those languages. Nay, I challenge all those who disapprove of classical study, to point out one good grammarian or lexicographer, in the English language, who was, or is, ignorant of the classics. I call on them to show the possibility of acquiring and sustaining this character, without such a knowledge.

(6) *Our own English classics cannot be read, and thoroughly understood, without the knowledge in question.* Nothing is more certain, than that all the best writers and speakers in our language, have been, and are, classical scholars. Shall I name Milton, Pope, Dryden, Cowper, Addison, Steele, Johnson, Gray, Goldsmith, Hume, Gibbon, Robertson, and others of the present time, standing with or near them? Shall I go into the departments of theology, of law, or of medical science, and name standard authors? And need I say, that not one of these can be found, who was destitute of the knowledge in question? How, then, are their works to be understood, I mean *radically* and *fully* comprehended, without a knowledge similar to theirs? Where is there, (I had almost said,) a single page in the whole,

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which does not contain some implied or express reference, in some shape or other, to the classics, or which has not received some modification from this source? Can any man understand the Paradise Lost, for example, who is not read in the classics? The thing is impossible. And it is equally true, of a great part of the highest and best models, in English literature. An entire comprehension of them is out of the question, to a man not furnished with a store of classical knowledge.

I am aware that I shall be told here, that such knowledge may be acquired by reading *translations* of the classics, without spending one's time to acquire a knowledge of the *originals*. Of this I shall take notice in the sequel, under another division of my subject.

(7) *The study of Latin and Greek is important to the young theologian, because they are the key necessary to unlock the stores of theological learning.*

Of the Greek this is plainly true, because the new Testament was written in Greek, and one of the most interesting and important of all the versions of the Old Testament, is in Greek. Of Latin it is true, because a great part of all the theological learning in the world is in that language; and in books, too, which never have been, and probably never will be, translated. Besides this, nearly all the most important lexicons, grammars, and commentaries, that have respect to the original languages of the Bible, have been, and still are, composed in Latin. Unless, then, the student in theology is to renounce forever all hopes of access to these rich, boundless, and overflowing sources, he must acquire a knowledge of Latin.

What student in theology, too, who has it in his power, will neglect to acquire the ability to peruse the Greek and Latin fathers, those burning and shining lights of the ancient Christian world, a great part of whose works never have been and never will be translated? Who that has opportunity can neglect this, without subjecting himself to the condemnation of the slothful servant in the parable?

Then, as to a knowledge of the Hebrew, it is next to impossible to get even a smattering of it, without some good knowledge of Latin and Greek, particularly of Latin. Almost all the best helps, as has just been stated, are in Latin. They will long be so, if not always. And besides this, the discipline which results from the study of the Greek and Roman classics, is altogether necessary in order to make a due proficiency in the Hebrew.

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Here, now, is so plain a case of the absolute necessity of Latin and Greek studies, that I should be willing to rest the whole cause upon it, in respect to vindicating the measures of the Education Society. The common allegation, that we may read classical authors in good translations, will not apply here. Translations do not exist, of a great part of the books which a student must peruse, who pursues the study of the original languages of the Scriptures. Plainly, then, he must either dispense wholly with this study, and content himself with such translations of the Bible as he can get, or he must be acquainted with classical languages, in order to pursue the study of the originals for himself.

We come then, by such a course of reasoning, directly to the question, *whether the young men patronized by the Education Society, should be expected and required to make themselves acquainted with the original Hebrew and Greek Scriptures.*

Into this question my limits forbid me to go at large. A few hints only, and I pass on to other topics.

In the first place, then, I ask every man who has read Homer and Virgil, whether any *translation* of them in our language furnishes him with a complete likeness of the originals? There never has been but one answer to this question; and there never can be but one, unless it was made out under the influence of feelings excited by dispute, and a determination at all adventures to carry a point. Pope's Homer is *Pope's;* and Dryden's Virgil is *Dryden's.* The Greek and the Latin author are both invested with modern costume, and drawn in the colouring of the present day. Even Cowper has not given us the *old* Homer, but a kind of *new* one. And surely, if the talents and enthusiasm of such translators, and the extraordinary powers which they had as to command of language, and the deep acquaintance which they had with the classics, and with the true nature and spirit of poetry; if all these combined were not adequate to give us a true portrait of Homer or Virgil; then what must be said of the many inferior translators, who have laboured to present us with a correct view of the other classics?

What is true here, is true of all the translations of the Scriptures, which have yet appeared in our language. I am not speaking now of the *sentiments* which the Bible contains—of its precepts and its penalties—which are so plain, that even the worst translation that ever was made of the Scriptures has not rendered them, for the most part, either obscure or dubious; and certainly, our venerable and excellent English translation

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has made them very plain. What men could do, in their age and with their means, our English translators did accomplish. Their work remains, to the present hour, one of the noblest in its kind which has yet been accomplished. But all the divine features of the original, no translator has ever conveyed; perhaps, nay, probably, none ever will be able to convey them. There are ten thousand thousand tints of light and shade, in the original picture, drawn by a hand that was guided by the power above, which no copyist has yet possessed ability to transfer to his imitation.

I advance a step farther. I aver, that there are some passages in our English version of the Scriptures, which are dark; nay, some absolutely without meaning, to a mere English reader. For example; what will such a reader understand by this expression, 'For this cause ought a woman to have power on her head, because of the angels'? 1 Cor. xi. 10. I might easily swell the list of passages dark like this, and then ask, how is a minister of the Gospel, unacquainted with the original Scriptures, to solve such difficulties? I shall be answered probably by the declaration, that he may consult commentators, in case of difficulties like these. But this is not a satisfactory answer. Those commentators, who give an *adequate* explanation of obscure phraseology, give one grounded in *philology*, and intelligible only through the medium of philology. He may consult, then, in vain. He cannot understand either what they speak, nor whereof they affirm. And even if he could, without a knowledge of his own, how can he judge whether the explanation given is probable or improbable? It is impossible; and all his inquiries, therefore, must end in disappointment, or be almost altogether nugatory.

Nothing can be plainer, than that any one unskilled in the original Scriptures must cast himself, almost if not quite implicitly, upon the credit of those whom he consults, for the meaning of the word of God. If an enemy of evangelical truth avers, when a passage is cited from our version in defence of such truth, that the original does not mean so or so, according to the interpretation given by the advocate for evangelical sentiment, how is the latter to contradict this? Shall he apply to commentators? He may; but then they give reasons which he does not understand; or they may be controverted by critical reasons, of which he is altogether unable to form a correct judgment. Shall the young men preparing for the ministry, aim at

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freeing themselves from such a state of dependence, from such a bondage as this?

I answer, YES. If I had a hundred voices, I would answer *yes* with them all. If I were a Roman Catholic, I could then take the exposition which an *infallible* church or pope has given of any and every part of Scripture. I should never need any other argument in favour of my interpretation, excepting evidence that an *infallible* expositor had decided in favour of it. But being a Protestant, and having as yet never been able to find an infallible expositor, since the days of inspiration have passed away, I value the privilege of examining opinions advanced upon the meaning of the Scriptures, more than all the treasures of earth. I do most ardently desire that every minister of the divine word should enjoy the like privilege, who can by any means attain it.

'But if the English translation of the Bible be obscure, in many places, how are the common people to understand it? And how can they be said to have any Bible?' Questions often put, in order to silence such reasoning as I have been advancing, but which do not at all embarrass my own mind. My answer is, that the common people are to understand the difficult passages of the Bible, by having them explained by their ministers; and that their ministers will be able to *explain* them, only when they study and *understand* them. So the great head of the church designed it should be; for he instituted the ministry for this very purpose.

I shall be asked again, 'if no translation of the Scriptures can be made, which will give an adequate view of the original, then what good purpose will the study of that original answer, since you yourself aver, that it can never be fully *represented* by any versions?'

An answer is not difficult. A proper view of the original will inspire feelings and views, which will give birth to many thoughts and reflections leading the reader himself to new and better apprehensions of the meaning of the sacred word, and enabling him to communicate them in a manner at once more interesting and intelligible. I will communicate my ideas of this important part of our subject, by an appeal to other things, which will be intelligible to all your readers.

Suppose a person is to lecture on the art of painting, and in particular, on the works of the great masters of this art. Shall he prepare himself, by the study of mere *copies* of Raphael, Michael Angelo, and Correggio's works; or shall he go at once

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to the originals in all their exquisite beauty and perfection, with all their light and shade, with all their finished touches and graces that cannot be copied? The whole world can give but one answer.

Again—I want to describe the beauties of nature—the glories of the visible creation around me—the heavens decked with shining worlds—the earth covered with fruits and flowers, adorned with copse and field, variegated with hills and mountains, intersected by rivulets and majestic streams; shall I go now to the celestial globe for the one, and to the landscapes of even Reubens and Van Dyke for the other? The merest child, who gazes on the azure vault of heaven with rapture, and ranges with delight the fields and flowery beds, and hills and dales, of the natural world, will answer this question as correctly as the astronomer, the botanist, and the geologist.

Apply these principles to the case before us. I want to make a copy of sketches drawn in the book of God. Shall I go, now, to the original, drawn by hands guided by skill divine, painted in colours of heavenly origin, and finished with all the exquisite light, and shade, and symmetry, which the pencil of an Omniscient Artist has given; shall I gaze on this, until my whole soul is stirred within me, and I am rapt into admiration, and wonder, and love, and my feelings catch something of the enthusiasm which the original author felt; and in this frame make an effort to draw a sketch for others; or shall I limit myself to an imperfect, a more or less untrue, copy of a divine original, and sit down contented with the belief, that I have a competent view of the original itself? I need not, and will not, answer this question; because I know there can be but one opinion respecting it.

In a word, (for I must cut short this topic,) who will communicate the most intelligible and impressive view of what the Scriptures contain, to the people who are to be instructed; he who has surveyed, with his own eyes, all the beauty and glory of the original; or he who has seen them only in an imperfect copy? Who will defend the meaning of the Scriptures in the best manner; he who can appeal to the original, and make others to feel the weight of his appeal; or he who is obliged to take things at second hand, and to cast himself on the assertions and the belief of others?

If the answer to such questions is plain, then it is equally plain, that *classical* study must be required of young men, designed for the ministry; for without this, to attain to proper

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and adequate knowledge of the original Scriptures is really out of the question, if respect be had to the apparatus for study which has as yet been furnished.

REVIEW.

History of the United States or Republic of America: exhibited in connexion with its Chronology and progressive Geography; by means of a series of Maps: the first of which shows the country as inhabited by various tribes of Indians at the time of its discovery, and the remainder its state at different subsequent epochas; so arranged as to associate the principal events of the history and their dates with the places in which they occurred; arranged on the plan of teaching history adopted in Troy Female Seminary. Designed for Schools and private Libraries. Offered to the public by Emma Willard, Principal of Troy Female Seminary. New-York. White, Gallagher, & White. 1828. 8vo. pp. 466.

History, from the peculiar nature and extent of its moral influences, holds a high place among the sciences. There are many subjects of which we may safely remain ignorant, though deemed important by their respective advocates, who would urge them upon us as essential to our intelligence and our happiness. But it is not so with history. To be ignorant of it, is to be ignorant of man, of the actions which manifest the variety, the extent, and the dignity of the powers of our own nature, of the relations which give origin and character to our duties, and of the events which have given form and complexion to the very circumstances in which we live. It is this moral value of history which renders it so important as a branch of education, and which, at the same time, attaches so much consequence to the method of teaching it.

Great mistakes, comparatively, may be made, both by the instructer and the pupil, in applying a rule of arithmetic or of grammar, and no harm ensue. A temporary intellectual error will probably entail no evil consequence on character or conduct. But not so in regard to history. Erroneous and defective instruction, or hurried and superficial application, darkens

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directing the attention, and leaves the young mind destitute of all those hallowed impulses of patriotic feeling, which should originate in the impressions of early youth. A teacher who is unsuccessful in his methods in this department, fails in the use of one of the finest influences over the disposition, neglects a power by which a high mental character might be cultivated in the humblest peasant, and overlooks one of the best means of raising the mass of our community to that pitch of moral excellence, which they are so favourably situated to attain.

These ideas, we are aware, have been often presented to our readers; but their importance, we trust, justifies their repetition, and warrants us, we think, in pursuing them for a few moments, before entering on the merits of the particular work before us. To teach history well, is not merely to succeed in rendering pupils fluent in reciting the contents of a book. It is to give the subject such an interest, through the method of teaching it, that it absorbs the mind of the learner, and becomes identified with it: it is to interweave it with the imagination, as well as the understanding and the memory,—to fasten it on all the moral associations of the soul; and, in the case of particular history, (as in that before us,) to render the individual, in affection and principle, as well as in name, a member of the community in which he lives.

These results, noble as they are, do not require any inaccessible means to bring them to pass. All that is required is an interesting manner of presenting history to the minds of children; and this is no difficult affair. Let any intelligent father or mother spend half an hour of an evening in *telling* the history of America to the younger part of the family; and there will be furnished a perfect model of what is needed in teaching and in books. Instead of a dry volume, scanty and abstract, addressing itself chiefly to the memory, there would be living instruction, calling into exercise the understanding, the heart, and the imagination. Instead of a mere chronicle of naked events, people with their actions and characters would be the subjects of attention; and the mind, busied with these, would be acquiring real and useful knowledge, adapted to its own condition and capacity, and preparing it for a full and profound knowledge of history at a future period. Nor would history, so taught, ever be forgotten in any essential point.

Teachers, if disposed to take the trouble, might do all this in school; and, for exercise to their pupils, might have them recapitulate orally what they were taught, and afterwards commit

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it to writing. In this way a great improvement might be effected in this branch of instruction. The reformation needed in books, would be accomplished chiefly by judicious selection in the narration of events, and by a more full exhibition of characters; regard being always paid to a simple, easy, and entertaining style of language. We have a fine example in the Tales of a Grandfather. It is a brief juvenile history; yet so well selected, and so well told, as to be at once a most entertaining series of tales, and the most faithful history of Scotland, ever offered to young readers.

Mrs. Willard's work is meant for young persons of some degree of cultivation and maturity. Still it comes the nearest of any book that has yet appeared, to a familiar and interesting history of the United States—not descending to extreme minuteness of detail, nor, on the other hand, offering a mere skeleton of a work, which might have been very useful and instructive, had the author only taken the pains to write it out. We value it highly on several accounts, and not the least that the book is not a servile copy of common place matter. It has what every book, and particularly every school book, ought to have, in order to make it interesting,—a character of its own. In few words, Mrs. Willard has thrown into the form of a regular publication the lessons which she is accustomed to give to her classes in history. This is nearly the idea suggested above; and the whole work has accordingly a living interest, like that of conversation. It is, in fact, a book which will be very useful to teachers themselves, not only from the ingenuity of its plan, but from the many aids which it affords for interesting the mind of the learner.

For the sake of those of our readers who may not have had opportunity to examine this useful volume we will speak of it more particularly, and attempt a brief account of its contents and their arrangement.

The work is preceded by a table exhibiting events in chronological order, and indicating, at the same time, the particular page of the book in which mention of them is made, and the reign or presidency under which they occurred. But although the table is made to comprehend so much matter, it is by no means confused of crowded; the columns into which it is divided being kept sufficiently distinct to admit of a clear and ready observation of any point which the reader may be desirous of tracing. This part of the work will be very serviceable to teachers by enabling them to ascertain, without unnecessary labour,

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and yet with satisfactory exactness, how far their pupils have been really benefitted by their class-book, or are familiar with its contents.

The preface, after a brief introduction of the work, proceeds to an explanation of the author's peculiar method of instruction in history, as giving rise to the principal feature in the plan of her work.

'The principle derived from the theory of the human mind, and from much practice in teaching, (that the true mnemonics of history is to associate the event and its date with the geographical representation of the place where it occurred,) is the foundation of the arrangement of a former small work,* designed to prepare pupils for the study of ancient history, and of the one here offered to the public. The system of mnemonics, or artificial memory, consists in assuming something which is an object of sight, separating it into certain divisions, and associating with each, in a certain order, such abstract ideas as we may wish to recollect. To the common systems of artificial memory there are insuperable objections. They fill the mind with mere lumber, if not with low and silly thoughts; thus degrading its conceptions, and clogging its energies. The cultivator of the youthful intellect should be no less careful to keep his garden free from weeds, than to water and preserve its healthful and beautiful plants. Yet the effects of these systems, so far as they aid in the recollection of facts, is good; and if a plan could be devised, securing their advantages, and yet free from their defects, surely it would be found of great use in education. The plan of teaching history here proposed, does, it is believed, secure these advantages; and so far from being degraded by its defects, the divisions here used to assist the memory, constitute the essential part of the important science of geography. Indeed, were I required to devise a plan for the mere purpose of bringing a pupil to the best possible knowledge of the geography of the United States, both as to particularity and permanency of association, this plan of studying it, in connexion with the history, is the very one which I should propose; for the event fixes the recollection of the place, no less than the place the event; and so far from one of the associations being an evil tolerated for the sake of the other, they are both so highly useful, that it is difficult to say which is the more important.'

In pursuance of the principles expressed in this extract, the author has divided her history into ten parts, each commencing with an important event, used as an epoch, for the purpose of

* Ancient Geography connected with Chronology, and preparatory to the study of Ancient History.

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distinguishing the portion of the narrative to which it belongs. The work is accompanied by an atlas containing a series of maps, corresponding to these epochs, and presenting a geographical sketch, as far as is required for the illustration of the events of each period; thus furnishing a very interesting view of the progress of the 'settlement' and improvement of the whole country, from the earliest attempts of various nations to colonize their respective portions of it, up to the year 1826; the map for which year presents to the eye the far spreading territory and numerous cities of this prosperous Union. Each map is designated by a date corresponding to one epoch in the history, and by an emblematic vignette, designed to aid the memory, by associating with the date the delineation of its most remarkable event. The course of particular voyages and expeditions, and the situation of naval exploits, are also presented to the eye on each of the maps. One great advantage of these arrangements, is that of affording clear and distinct ideas of the history, by giving a correct and striking representation of whatever is essential to the understanding of the successive parts of the narration; preserving the ancient names of extensive regions, and particular places, which could never have been effected to advantage by crowding the whole into one or a few maps. An attentive student is thus enabled to accomplish a review of the whole course of American history, by the inspection of the maps alone; and mothers who take an active interest in the instruction of their children may, by the same means, succeed in imparting very just notions of the more prominent facts and events, which form the outline of this important branch of knowledge.

The preface closes with a 'note to instructers,' from which, on account of the expedients it *suggests*, not less than those it *describes*, we make several extracts.

'To lay down a method of teaching any particular work, which will be equally suitable for the pupils of every school, would be impossible; because the previous methods pursued in instructing, and the state of advancement of the pupils, is to be taken into consideration; besides, it is impossible to tell exactly the best method of teaching any book, prior to experience in teaching that particular work, which of course cannot be had at the printing of its first edition. Yet the general system of instruction for which its author designed it, can be made known; and instructers can then vary, as they shall see that the circumstances of their particular schools shall make it expedient.

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'This work is designed for pupils who are already in a measure acquainted with geography, particularly with the use of maps. My own pupils, who will be put to studying it, will be able to draw without a model, but merely from recollection, maps of the principal countries of the world, particularly of the United States. The class will each be furnished with a black board, about two feet in length, and nearly the same in breadth. The lesson being given out, it is expected they will, in addition to studying it in the book, each draw with chalk upon her board, a sketch of that part of the country which is the seat of the portion of history which the lesson contains; marking slightly the track of navigators, and march of armies. Each pupil must bring her black board to her class room, and her recitation will in part consist of the explanation, which, agreeable [?] to the accounts derived from the book, she is to give of her sketched map. The pupils should be taught these as large as their boards will admit.'

'It is not to be inferred from the remarks made on the importance of geographical associations, that those parts of the work which are of a nature not to admit of such associations, are to be neglected. *Moral* improvement is the true end of intellectual. Hence, the propriety of sometimes turning aside in the relations of history, to make such moral reflections as they may suggest; and if it is proper for the historian to make them, it is proper for the student to notice them.'

'The course pointed out must, it is apparent, make the pupil understand the study; but this may be, and the labour of the teacher is not yet accomplished. The pupil must also be made to remember. What he has studied may be as yet only slightly in his mind. In studying over the whole work, he has given his attention to so great a mass of facts, that without further exertions his acquisitions would soon fade from his memory, and he would possess no clue by which he could recall them; he would have no arrangement in his mind, by which he could in future bring forward his knowledge for his own use, or that of others. After studying the work in the manner proposed, a different arrangement should next be presented to the pupil, and inducements placed before him, which will give him a disposition to such patient and vigorous exertion, as shall be necessary for his studying over and over the leading points of the subject, till he has them perfectly in his memory.'

The Introduction to this volume contains many useful thoughts on the method of studying history, and the advantages accruing from it to the mental and moral character of the student. The author's observations in this part of the work, are entitled to the attentive notice of parents and teachers.

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'That the advantages of history are at the present day duly appreciated in our country, appears from its general introduction into our schools. Important reasons may be given to show that every student or reader of history should commence with that of his own country; and further, that the history of the United States or Republic of North America is a better study for youth, as regards the most essential objects of the study of history, than that of any other nation.

When the course of events is studied, for the purpose of gaining general information, the natural order of our thoughts must be regarded, if we expect that our memory will treasure up the objects of our attention. Each individual is to himself the centre of his own world; and the more intimately he connects his knowledge with himself, the better will it be remembered, and the more effectually can it be rendered in after life subservient to his purposes. Hence in geography he should begin with his own place, extending from thence to his country, and to the world.

In history, the natural order, by which best to assist the memory, would be, to let the child begin with some of the leading events in his own history, and that of his family; connecting them in chronology with some capital event in that of his country. For example, teach the young learner in what year of the world he was born, and what event of his country happened at or near the time. Pursuing this plan, perhaps you will say to him, your father was born in such a year, so much before or after the date of the American Independence; such was the date of your mother's birth, and such the connecting event—such of the marriage of your parents, and of the birth or death of your brothers and sisters. Thus the record of the family Bible with a few important national events, which the mother might easily connect and teach to her little children, should be the first foundation of their knowledge of history and chronology; and this well laid would be as enduring as the mind. Something of this kind is *incidentally* if not systematically done in every family. At the period of receiving school education, the pupil having learned the epochas of the history of his family wants those of his country; and these will of necessity, connect her history with that of cotemporary nations.

Another reason why the student should learn the history of his own country earlier and more minutely than that of any other is, that he may be presumed to know its geography better, and *it is* of more importance that he should accurately understand it. We shall read to the best advantage, the history of that country of which we have the best geographical knowledge. But the study of the history of the United States, pursued as is laid down in the system here presented to the public, must give to the student a

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minute knowledge of its geography in the various stages of its progression.'

'As it respects the most important advantage in the study of history, which is improvement in individual and national virtue, we come boldly forward to advocate a preference for the history of the Republic of America. Here are no tales of hereditary power and splendour to inflame the imaginations of youth with desires for adventitious distinction. Here are no examples of profligate females, where the trappings of royalty or nobility give to vice an elegant costume; or, as with the celebrated Scot, where beauty and misfortune make sin commiserated, till it is half loved. Here are no demoralizing examples of bold and criminal ambition, which has "waded through blood to empire." The only desire of greatness which our children can draw from the history of their ancestors is to be greatly good.

'It is not in formal lessons of virtue, that her principles are most deeply imbibed. It is in moments when her approach is not suspected, that she is fixing her healing empire in the heart of youth When his indignation rises against the oppressor,—when his heart glows with the admiration of suffering virtue,—it is then that he resolves never to be an oppressor himself;—and he half wishes to suffer that he may prove that he too is virtuous. No history, ancient or modern, affords examples more fitted to raise these ennobling emotions than that of America, particularly at the period of her revolution.'

Of the history itself we have left ourselves little room to speak. This indeed we consider as belonging more properly to the province of other works than ours. It is as a work of education that we have mentioned Mrs. Willard's production; and in this respect it seems fully entitled, we think, to a preference over any thing that has yet been offered to the public. There is none, it appears to us, which gives so clear, intelligible, and interesting ideas of American history, in a form adapted to the minds of youth. It may be advantageously used as a first book, by employing the maps chiefly, and selecting the most remarkable and important events of the narrative; or where Goodrich's history or any similar compend has been already perused, it may be introduced with good effect in the higher classes of schools and seminaries for either sex; though from its origin and preparation, it is peculiarly adapted to females.

Before taking leave of this interesting work, we would take the liberty of making a few suggestions with reference to future editions. We have observed, we think, some inequalities in

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the statement of facts and in the character of the style, which a thorough personal revision by the author would remove. We may mention, as an instance, two passages in the twenty ninth page, in which, after Columbus is said to have 'discovered the continent of America,' the Cabots are represented as having, a year after, 'made the first discovery of the continent of America.' This, and a few other inaccuracies, we attribute to the assistance employed by the author in compiling her work, and the difficulty, in such cases, of detecting discrepancies whether real or apparent. The phraseology of the narrative would admit of improvement in several places. It possesses, we admit, a chaste animation and a good deal of variety; but it is deficient, perhaps, in exactness and regularity, in perfect clearness and close connexion. But these defects, we have no doubt, will be done away, when the author, reviewing her work as a whole, and not, (as necessarily at first,) in portions, shall have had opportunity to give it symmetry and finish.—Some of the emblems in the Atlas ought perhaps to be re-engraved.

We allude to these minor defects with the greater freedom, as the substantial excellence of the work enables us to do so, and we anticipate its extensive use in all schools and seminaries in which a full course of American history is an object of attention.

INTELLIGENCE.

AMERICAN INSTITUTION, CITY OF WASHINGTON.

[Extract from a Circular.]

The Course of Instruction in this Institution will consist of the following departments:—I. *Classical.*—II. *Mathematical.*—III. *English.*—IV. *Military* and *Gymnastic.*

I. *Classical.*—This department will embrace the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, Italian, and English languages.

II. The *Mathematical* will include Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Logarithms, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Mensuration of Surfaces, Surveying, Levelling, Navigation, Mensuration of Solids, Conic Sections, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy. The *Natural Sciences*, Botany, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology and Natural History.

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II. *Practical Education.*—The importance of this subject is daily urging itself upon public attention; and the time is not far distant when it will be demanded as a very essential part of education. Particular attention therefore will be given at this Institution, to the following:—Book Keeping, application of Trigonometry to Heights and Distances, Triangular Surveys; Levelling and Engineering; Graduation of Streets; Surveying of Lots, Squares, Farms, Cities or Counties, Islands and Harbours; &c. and making out Topographical Maps of the same; measuring the Altitude of Mountains and other eminences with the Barometer and Trigonometrically; Civil Engineering, including the construction of Roads and Canals, Locks and Bridges; Military Drawing, Architecture. To practise the above, classes in the Mathematics will be frequently taken out with the Chain and Compass, Theodolite and Levelling Rods; and with the Sextant and Quadrant for Astronomical and other purposes. The Instructers in Drawing, Mineralogy and Botany, will occasionally go out with their classes—to sketch objects from Nature—to become acquainted with minerals and rocks at their localities—to examine the flowers of the field, and each plant and tree in its own native perfection.

III. *English.*—This will embrace Grammar, Composition, Punctuation, Penmanship and printing with the pen, public reading and Declamation, Modern and Ancient Geography, including the use of Maps and the Globes with their problems, Ancient and Modern History, Rhetoric, Logic, Moral Philosophy, drawing and constructing Geographical Maps, including the principles of Projection.

IV. *Military.*—All the *required* Military exercises and duties are entirely practical, no Cadet being obliged to devote any time to the *study* of this science. They are so arranged as not to occupy any time that would otherwise be devoted to study, and are made a pleasing and healthful substitute for those useless amusements, that occupy hours of the day generally devoted to idleness and dissipation. Marches and pedestrian tours will occasionally be made, having for their object to enure youth to hardship and fatigue. They return to their studies with relaxation of mind and increased physical energies. Such excursions are equally conducive to health and improvement.

This department will embrace a complete course of Military Tactics, including the school of the Soldier, Company and Battalion; the Light Infantry, Rifle and Artillery drills and movements; the principles of Cavalry manœuvres; the duties of Officers of the day and Adjutants, the formation of Military Parades; inspection of Arms; standing and passing Reviews; Guard duties; making out Military and other reports; Permanent and Field Fortifications, and principles of Gunnery.

Gymnastic Exercises.—These will be bathing, running, leaping, pitching the quoit, playing ball, and such other exercises as shall be regulated by the Principal. As the Artillery Drill affords one of the best exercises for muscular exertion, it will be frequently attended to.

Fencing, the Broad Sword exercise, and Dancing, will complete the course in this department.

The Cadets of this Institution can be prepared to enter the Military Academy at West Point; the Navy; or either of the classes in any of our Colleges or Universities; or they can remain here and finish their education.

Reports.—Weekly, Monthly, and Session Reports, of the studies, progress and conduct of the Cadets, will be made out and sent to their parents or guardians.

Discharge.—Any Cadet in regular standing at the Institution, shall be entitled to a discharge, stating the time he has been a member, the studies he has attended to, the progress made in them, and an account of his general conduct.

Certificate.—To be entitled to a general certificate, signed by the officers of the Institution, the Cadet must have been a regular member one year; of correct moral character; and he must have passed a satisfactory and creditable

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examination on studies equivalent to those usually required the two first years in colleges.

Diplomas.—Any Cadet who shall have been a member at least two years; who has received one or more certificates; who has acquired a thorough knowledge of the Latin, Greek, or one of the Modern Languages; and who has completed a full course of English studies and Mathematics, shall be entitled to a *Diploma*, signed by the President and Officers of the Institution and approved by the Trustees.

Catalogue of Books. For Latin.—Adam's Latin Grammar, Gould's edition. Liber Primus, Cæsar's Commentaries, Virgil, Cicero's Select Orations, De Oratore, and De Amicitia de Senectute, Sallust, Horace, five first books Livy, five books Tacitus. *Greek.*—Buttman's Greek Grammar, Jacob's Greek Reader, Neilson's Greek Exercises, Græca Majora, Xenophon's Anabasis, six books Homer's. Iliad. *Mathematics, &c.*—Tyler's Arithmetic, Bennet's Book Keeping, Colburn's Algebra, Legendre's Geometry, Gibson's Surveying, Bowditch's Navigation, Hassler's Trigonometry, Simpson's Conic Sections, Enfield's Natural Philosophy, Smellie's Philosophy of Natural History, (Ware's edition,) Worcester's Geography and Atlas, (edition of 1828,) Worcester's Elements of Ancient and Modern History with chart, (edition of 1828,) Hale's History United States; Murray's Grammar and Exercises, Blair's Rhetoric, Hedge's Logic, Paley's Moral Philosophy, (last American edition,) Brown's Philosophy of the Mind, Say's Political Economy, Federalist, Vattel's Law of Nations. Military Tactics.

The American Institution is located in Washington, D. C., about one-fourth of a mile N. W. from the President's, North of Pennsylvania Avenue, near Gen. Thompson's, on the principal road leading to Georgetown.

The situation is retired, and on an eminence, pleasant, elevated and airy; the ground about it is open and extensive.—It commands a fine view of the Capitol, Navy Yard, President's House and Public Offices; of Georgetown and its Heights; of the Potomac river and Alexandria.

No place in the United States affords greater facility for a varied, useful, practical education. It will be one particular object with the Principal, to give every Cadet an opportunity of attending the Sessions of Congress, visiting the Patent and other Public Offices, and other places of interest and improvement.

It is intended at the American Institution, to give a young man an American Education;—to arouse the mental energies—to excite thought—to rear up a sound mind in a sound body;—so that where there is a head to conceive, there may be an arm to execute;—to qualify him for the efficient discharge of duties that may devolve upon him in public or private life.

Officers.—These consist of the Principal, (Major J. Holbrook,) Professor of Languages, two Assistant Professors of Mathematics, Professor of French, Professor of Spanish and Italian, and Chaplain.

CLASSICAL AND SCIENTIFIC SEMINARY, BALLSTON, N. Y.

[Extract from the Prospectus.]

The design of this Seminary is to combine the highest advantages of public and private education, by a well regulated and systematic course of physical, mental, and moral culture. To develope and confirm the physical powers, by

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a regular and systematic course of gymnastic exercises—to enlarge and extend the views—to excite and cherish the nobler energies of the mind, by a liberal and extensive course of instruction, in the various departments of literature and science—to cultivate the social affections—instil delicacy of feeling, and establish the moral character, by a religious and moral influence, pervading the whole system and course of instruction. In short to produce 'a sound mind in a sound body' and to develope those noble and manly powers which will fit youth for the high purposes to which they are destined.

To establish and preserve an equilibrium in these three grand departments of education, is an object of the highest importance. We know not in what manner, or how the mind and body are connected, but that they act and react upon each other, is beyond a doubt. We cannot pursue a train of profound and serious thought to any considerable length without feeling a weariness throughout the whole physical system, as well as a kind of mental languor; neither can we pursue a course of bodily exercise to the weariness of the physical system, without producing a kind of languor and dejectedness in the mental faculties. Hence 'to possess a sound mind in a sound body' is indispensably necessary to great mental exertions.

To attain this end a regular and systematic course of physical culture becomes a highly necessary and important branch in the education of youth. The military exercises—the gymnastic and other athletic exercises have contributed their aid to the developement of the muscular powers, and to the establishment of a sound physical constitution.

It is obvious, that the course of physical, should be as regular as that of mental culture, as the formation of regular habits in early youth will have an important bearing on the details of after life. The gymnastic exercises are sometimes interrupted by the excessive heat of summer—inclemencies of weather, &c. To remedy this defect it is intended to introduce into the Seminary, as soon as it shall become completely organized, fencing—the broad sword exercises, &c.; which may be resorted to for a change of exercises, and when inclemencies of weather should prevent the usual exercises on the gymnastic grounds.

While regularity should be kept up as a leading feature, the propensity of early youth to variety and change of pursuits and amusements, should not be forgotten. Taking advantage of this principle of our nature, it is intended that the changes and alterations in the courses of mental and physical culture shall be sufficiently frequent, to render them interesting and at the same time not so much so as to distract the mind by too great a variety.

Since the different individuals who may enter may have different objects in view with regard to their future destinies in life; the course of studies, in all cases, will be arranged in such a manner as shall be best adapted to the specific objects they may have in view. Those destined for commercial or agricultural pursuits, or any other stations in active life, will pursue a course of instruction adapted to their respective ends. Those calculated for the college or university course will read the same authors that are read in the colleges and by the classes they purpose to enter; while those who may enter for a considerable length of time, with a view to a professional life, or to fitting themselves for literary and scientific professions, will pursue a more thorough, liberal and extensive course.

While we endeavour in our physical culture to develope and establish the powers of the physical nature; and in the mental, to impart acumen of thought —patience of research—soundness of intellect—accuracy and clearness of reasoning; and to instil a refined taste for intellectual pleasures;—in fine while we are endeavouring to excite and confirm the sterner and nobler energies of our nature—we should not forget man as a Moral Being, destined to a future state of endless existence.

Although we may not bend to the '*old Philosophy*' as to a shrine of idolatrous worship; yet we should treat with due deference all that is of moral ex-

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cellence, of Ancient as well as of Modern times. Socrates it is said, made all his philosophy subservient to morality and piety; and esteemed all knowledge, as useless speculation, which did not tend to make us *wiser* and *better*.

While the pupil is led on in 'the *luminous path* of *truth*' through all the intricacies and labyrinths of science—proceeding from particulars to generals—imbuing his mind with all that is valuable in classic learning—discovering the nature, properties and organization of bodies—investigating the laws and phenomena of nature; he should be directed by the 'guardian influence of parental care,' to look 'through Nature up to Nature's God.'—And while he is filled with admiration of the awful sublimity and grandeur of the scene before him, he cannot but adore and reverence *Him* who is the great first cause and prime mover of so grand, sublime and harmonious a system.

Thus, by the aid of the first principles of the *Christian Philosophy*, derived from the grand text book of Revelation, the pupil will learn not only his dependence *upon*, but also his duty *to* his Maker—and thus will be verified the noble observation of Lavater, that, 'Much philosophy leads to Christianity.'

Under the influence of a parental government, exercising 'an authority, firm yet affectionate—decided yet mild—imposing no unnecessary restraint, yet encouraging every innocent freedom and gratification exercised according to the dictates of judgment,'—regulating the temper—instilling delicacy of feeling—cultivating and cherishing the social affections and the finer sympathies of our nature—inculcating the laws of honour, love, harmony and friendship—the youthful mind will gradually become habituated to the exercises of the social virtues, and impressed with all that is noble, lovely, and excellent in character. *Jonathan R. Paddock, (Principal.)*

BAPTIST THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY, NEWTON, MASS.

The Newton Theological Institution is 'adapted to the instruction of graduates and others, whose attainments enable them, along with graduates, to proceed profitably in theological studies.' It is 'open for the admission of those persons only, who give evidence of their possessing genuine piety, with suitable gifts and attainments, and of their being influenced by proper motives in wishing to pursue theological studies: and who, moreover, present certificates from the churches of which they are members, approving of their devoting themselves to the work of the ministry.'

The regular course of study occupies three years, and embraces Biblical Literature, Ecclesiastical History, Biblical Theology, and Pastoral Duties—There are two Professors, who are required to 'devote their time and talents to accelerating the progress of their pupils in the acquisition of those attainments which shall be most conducive to their usefulness in the ministry.' No charge is made to any student for tuition, room-rent and furniture, or use of the Library. It is the determination of the Trustees, to reduce the necessary expenses as much as possible, so that the advantages of the Institution may be generally enjoyed. They have also consulted for the health of the students; and are making arrangements for regular bodily exercise by labouring on the farm, when the weather is suitable, and by various sorts of work within doors, when the weather forbids working without a shelter.

The Institution has been in operation three years; and the churches are already beginning to reap its benefits. Several persons who have been connected with it, are now occupying important stations, and are rendering valuable aid to the cause of the gospel.

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During the present year, the Trustees have been enabled, through the liberal donations of various individuals, to erect a commodious brick edifice for the use of the students. It is eighty five feet long, and forty nine wide; in height three stories, exclusive of the basement story; and has for the students' apartments thirty four rooms, to each of which is attached a bed-room. It also contains a chapel in which the students will attend worship every morning and evening, and an apartment for the Library. This building is not yet quite finished; but is expected to be completed in season to be occupied by the students at the opening of the next term.—*Baptist Mag.*

PUBLIC LECTURES IN PARIS.

The French journals have of late made frequent mention of the three courses of lectures on literature, philosophy, and history, which Messrs. Villemain, Cousin, and Guizot have recently commenced at the Faculty of Letters of the Academy of Paris; and many of our periodicals have echoed the Parisian phrases of the *influence to be exercised on the public mind by these lectures, wherein the most important historical, philosophical, and literary problems are developed with that superiority of talent which distingnishes the three illustrious professors.*

We have no desire to disturb this concurrent praise accorded by the liberal journals to Messieurs Villemain, Cousin, and Guizot. The opening of these courses of lectures is a happy event for the youth of France; and their lessons, in unison, as they must be, with the ideas and the necessities of the age, cannot fail to contribute to the triumph of liberty and the progress of civilization.

But these three mentioned are not the only courses of lectures which exist at Paris, nor the only ones which, by the salutary influence they exercise and the illustrious names of the professors who deliver them, deserve to draw on them the public attention. It is to supply an omission which savours of injustice, and to excite, if it be possible, an useful emulation among the men who have weight in the public affairs of the three kingdoms, that we propose briefly to enumerate the principal establishments for public instruction existing in Paris, and which have earned for that city, and in this point of view most deservedly, the title of the capital of the civilized world.

Without reckoning the 'Ecoles Royales gratuites de dessin,' established in the Rue de l'Ecole de Medecine et Rue de Touraine; 'L'Ecole Royale et spéciale des Langues Orientales vivantes,' at the Bibliotheque du Roi; the course of lectures on astronomy which M. Arago gives annually at the Observatoire, and the lectures on chemistry applicable to dyeing, which are delivered at the Gobelin manufactory,—Paris counts four grand public establishments in which the sciences, literature, and the manufacturing arts are taught gratuitously by the most distinguished men, in their respective branches, of the kingdom. These are, 'Le Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers,' in the Rue St. Martin, 'Le Jardin des Plantes,' 'Le College de France,' and 'La Sorbonne,' of which the two last are situated in the Faubourg St. Jaques.

It was M. Gregoire, formerly bishop of Blois, who first proposed to the Committee of Public Instruction in the National Convention, the creation of the 'Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers;' and the Council of Five Hundred, in its sitting of the 6th May, 1798, decreed that a great part of the buildings of the suppressed abbey of 'St. Martin des Champs,' should be appropriated to its establishment, and there a collection should be formed of models of all the instruments known or invented by man, and used in the several arts and professions.

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Besides instruction in design, in architecture, and in mechanics, the Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers has a course of lectures on political economy by M. J. B. Say; a course on geometry by M. Charles Dupin; and one on chemistry, as applied to the arts by M. Christian. These lectures are public, and have for their object to form skilful artists and distinguished professors.

The courses delivered at the Jardin des Plantes are numerous. They embrace every branch of natural history. There M. Cuvier gives his justly celebrated lectures on comparative anatomy; M. Teynard his lessons on chemistry; M. Jussieu on botany, and other professors, to the number of twenty or thereabouts, instruct in other classes of natural sciences.

The Jardin des Plantes, founded in 1635, is one of the most curious establishments in Paris. Its collection of plants and shrubs of every description, is immense. Its library and other vast galleries are filled with the rarest productions of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms in all parts of the world. The theatres in which the Lectures are given, are situated in different parts of the Jardin; of these the principal, called the Amphitheatre, not far from the Menagerie of living animals, is capable of holding at least two thousand persons.

The 'College Royale de France,' founded by Francis I., built by Henry IV., and inaugurated by Louis XVI., reckons no less than twenty one courses of lectures, in which instruction is given gratuitously in astronomy, the mathematics, general and mathematical physics, experimental physics, medicine, anatomy, chemistry, natural history, the natural law and the law of nations, the history of moral philosophy, the Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syrian languages, Arabic, Persian, the French language by M. Andrieux, history and moral philosophy by M. Laromiguiere, ancient history by the learned and modest M. Daunou, and Latin poetry, which was at one time treated by M. Tissot. A great number of ladies attend the lessons of these professors, and more especially those of M. Andrieux on the French language.

The course of lectures at the Sorbonne equal in numbers those of the College de France; but the principal object of the institution is instruction in the *belles lettres* and modern history. M. Gay-Lusac, Biot, and Barbier-du-Bocage, it is true, give lessons in chemistry, physics, and geography: but the lectures most frequented are those of M. Lacretelle on the history of France, and especially those of Messieurs Villemain, Cousin, and Guizot.

For. Jour. cop. Walsh's Gazette.

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Errors in Education. A Discourse delivered at the Anniversary of the Derby Academy, in Hingham, (Mass.) May 21, 1828. By Convers Francis, Minister of the Congregational Church in Watertown. Second Edition. Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 1828. 12mo. pp. 28.

This we are glad to see is a popular as well as a useful pamphlet. Its importance as a publication connected with the subject to which our work is de-

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veted, would have induced us to give it an earlier notice, had the publishers afforded us an opportunity."

The author limits himself in this discourse to an exposition of prevalent mistakes regarding education. Of these he selects the following—1. That of 'forgetting that the object of early education is not so much to fill the mind as to discipline and strengthen it.'—2. 'The neglect of the principles and the influence of association.'—3. 'Overlooking the facts, that a large part of the influence by which the mind and character of the young are formed, is an *indirect* influence,' and (4,) 'that the business of forming the mind and character begins earlier and continues later than we are apt to suppose.'—5. 'We are too apt to educate intellect at the expense of the heart.'

Each of these topics is treated in a clear, practical, and highly interesting manner; and we have enumerated them above, rather for the sake of readers at a distance, than with a view to enforce any of the writer's statements, as they are so distinctly and concisely expressed, that to attempt any abridgment of them would be injustice to the merits of the discourse.—We earnestly hope that this valuable pamphlet will be read extensively in other parts of the Union as well as in New England. Its subject is one of the most prominent and most important of our national interests.

A Selection of One Hundred of Perrin's Fables, accompanied with a Key containing the Text, a literal and a free Translation, arranged in such a manner as to point out the difference between the French and the English Idiom: also a figured Pronunciation of the French, according to the best French works extant on the subject. The whole preceded by a short treatise on the Sounds of the French Language, compared with those of the English. By A. Bolmar, Professor of the French Language in the High School of Philadelphia. Philadelphia. Printed for the Author, and sold by the principal Booksellers in the United States. 1828. 12mo. pp. 264.

This book, as a work for elementary instruction in the French language, is, in all respects, the best that has yet been published. To render the correctness of this opinion evident, we have only to say, that it embraces all that is truly valuable in the method of literal translation, divested of its supposed disadvantages. It contains all that may justly be termed recent improvement, and secures, along with the facilities of the 'literal' method, a course of discipline more than securing all the benefits arising from the use of a dictionary, and the independent exercise of the learner's own mind, as on the common plan. The peculiar advantages of the author's method, however, were fully stated in a Review in a former number; and we have only to add that the present form of the work renders it at once the cheapest, the most accurate, and the most comprehensive class book of its kind. We would invite those teachers who have not yet seen it, to put themselves in possession of it, and all who have not yet decided on an introductory work, to examine this, before making a final selection.

For *learners*, we repeat it, we know of no work so well adapted to its objects. For the grammatical stage of the scholar's progress the work of Mr. Cubi will form a valuable aid, as a natural gradation in the scale of mental exercise. But as a volume to be used at the very commencement of study, the selection before us is recommended by its facility; and it is the author's pecu-

* We may mention here, that several works, recently issued from the press, we should have laid before our readers, but for the reason alluded to above.

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lar merit to have guarded this facility from degenerating into a disadvantage by furnishing more assistance than would be beneficial to the mental habits of the learner.

In a recent number, our readers will recollect, some account was given of the seminary from which the above work is issued. It is not a slight benefit conferred on the cause of education, when an institution furnishes specimens of improved instruction, which may serve as examples to similar establishments; and it is a service still more valuable, to afford, through the medium of improved school books, the means of disseminating good instruction throughout the community. We are happy to observe the principal of the Philadelphia High School, and his associates in the business of teaching, contributing thus effectually to the progress of improvement in education.*

*** *Substitute for Murray's Introduction to the English Reader.*—Through the attention of the publishers, Messrs. Richardson & Lord of Boston, we have had opportunity to see the greater part of the sheets of a work compiled for the object indicated above. It is entitled an Introduction to the National Reader, of which notice was taken at p. 620 of vol. II. of the Journal. It is compiled by the author of that work, and of the American First Class Book. As a substitute for the English Introduction, it will prove, we think, equally acceptable and useful. Murray's work is itself an excellent reading book,—the best decidedly of all his compilations. Still, it will be found, by attentive teachers, to contain a good many pieces, both in its prose and poetry, which it would need a mature mind to comprehend or to relish. It was an admirable book at a time when teachers did not expect to find any, in which a young pupil could understand much of what he read. Since that time, however, intelligible and interesting reading books are become numerous; and teachers may reasonably expect to find selections preferable even to Murray's. This is no disparagement to that justly venerated name. Literature professedly adapted to the juvenile mind, was but in its dawn at the time when Murray compiled his school books; and it is now a slight meed of praise, to say, that any author has produced a book for the younger classes in schools, which proves to be better than one published twenty years ago.

Mr. Pierpont's Introduction possesses the recommendations of chaste literary style in the pieces, along with a peculiarly easy, natural, and interesting manner of presenting their subjects to the young mind. There is nothing formal, dull, or unintelligible, to be found in what we have seen of the book. A spirit and animation, harmonizing finely with the character of youth, and rendering the work uncommonly valuable for the purposes of reading and elocution pervade every lesson. The moral instruction imparted by the influence of the selection on the memory, the imagination, and the heart, forms an excellent feature of this compilation; and the American character which the author has given to his work, by the occasional introduction of appropriate biography and anecdote, while it increases the interest of the reading, serves a useful purpose in relation to national character and feeling.

* Since our notice was written, the school has obtained, we understand, the valuable accession of the services of Mr. Frost, recently an eminent teacher in the public schools of this city, and a successful author in the department of school books and juvenile publications.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

MATERNAL INSTRUCTION.

[From Rev. Joseph Muenscher's Address at the Inauguration of the Instructers of Brookfield Female Seminary.]

In order to communicate the first lessons of instruction to her tender offspring and to give a right direction to the infant mind, it is not sufficient that the mother be mistress of certain external accomplishments, or acquainted with the arcana of domestic economy. She may, notwithstanding all this be utterly disqualified for the important business of domestic education. She should be thoroughly versed in the philosophy of the human mind and of the human character,* in order to impart knowledge to her children in the most pleasing and successful manner. She should be intimately acquainted with natural science—and with the causes and reason of things, even to answer the many curious and interesting inquiries which children of inquisitive minds daily make of their parents, and which from ignorance, perhaps, as much as from any other cause, are permitted to pass unanswered. An accurate knowledge of the principles of grammar and *rhetoric* [?] is likewise of the highest importance to parents. Whence arises the great disparity between different families and individuals in regard to the style of their ordinary conversation? Does it arise from the inequalities of natural talent? It cannot be attributed to this cause, because many persons of inferior talents converse with more correctness and elegance than others who are decidely their superiors in this respect. Is it occasioned by the difference in their comparative advantages for

* Here, we presume, the author intends that true philosophy, which is the result of attentive observation and sound judgment, and which is to be drawn not so much from books as from a thinking and reflecting mind.—*Ed.*

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a public education? It manifestly is not; for many who have enjoyed all the advantages of a public education, and have received all the honours of our literary institutions, discover less purity and elegance in their colloquial style, than many who have had an opportunity to avail themselves of no such advantages. Is it in consequence of a familiarity with good society? Purity of language may be and doubtless often is acquired by familiar intercourse with good society, but it is more frequently acquired at an early period of life, in no society but that of the domestic circle. The difference arises, it is believed, more from the education of the nursery than from any other cause. It is owing chiefly to the care and pains taken by intelligent and well-educated mothers. The forms of speech and modes of expression which children imbibe from their parents and others, who have the care of their early education, are usually retained through life, notwithstanding the superior advantages they may at a subsequent period enjoy. Let the mother habituate her children from the very first, to the use of neat, appropriate, and elegant expressions, let her be particularly cautious in the selection of her own words, that they may imbibe from her none of those improprieties of speech which are common even in good society, and she will accomplish that for her offspring which, if neglected in early life, they may fail to acquire either in polished circles or within the walls of a learned university. For the vulgarities, the solecisms, the colloquialisms and other grammatical and rhetorical errors which are contracted in early life, entirely by imitation, in consequence of being deeply fixed by habit in the mind, become as it were constitutional infirmities, which, like chronic diseases of the body, it is almost beyond the power and skill of man to cure.

INFANT SCHOOLS.

[From Mr. Ladd's Address copied in the New-York Christian Advocate.]

An infant school society was formed in New-York, in May, 1827. Last winter I had the pleasure to visit their school No. 1, under the immediate direction of Mrs. Bethune, a lady who walks in the same paths that her sainted mother, Mrs. Graham,

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trod before she went to receive her reward. One hundred and seventy children were registered in this school—average attendance, sixty to one hundred. Beside the superintendent, there are two teachers and one assistant, all females. My visit was on a day of public exhibition, and if ever my heart beat as though it would burst from its narrow tenement—if ever I had difficulty in preventing my tears from overflowing my eyes, it was then. To see these infants raked from lanes and alleys, cleanly though coarsely clad, seated in an amphitheatre, on benches raised one above another, with joyful and intelligent countenances, watching every motion of their teacher, none over six years of age, from that age down to eighteen months, reading, spelling, answering questions in arithmetic, geography, and astronomy; repeating a chapter in the Bible, and giving the sense in a plain, perspicuous, and intelligent manner, which would put to shame many of our grown persons, even professors of religion, and singing hymns with astonishing harmony and melody, I could but exclaim, surely 'out of the mouths of babes and sucklings thou hast perfected praise.'

Apprehending that this might be stage effect, got up for the occasion, I determined to investigate the facts, which, had not my eyes seen, and my ears heard, I should have thought incredible; and I resolved to visit the school at some other time, and see it in its every day dress. Accordingly, without any form of introduction, a few days after, I rapped at the door, and easily gained access. Here I beheld the same lady, surrounded by her infant charge, whom she was busily instructing. To my mind she appeared more noble, more entitled to veneration, than Napoleon on his throne, surrounded by kings, princes, dukes, and marshals of his own creation, who strutted their little hour upon the stage, and then passed over it like a gaudy pageant, and returned to the obscurity from whence they came. I found her as willing and as able to instruct adults as children, and spent an hour delightfully in witnessing the ever varying evolutions of the school, and the happy countenances of the delighted children, who received their instruction as pastime rather than a task. I do not remember that more than one child cried while I was there, and she was soon pacified. There was no rod; the children were governed by love, not by fear.

The art of instruction is one of the most important in the world; yet instruction is often entrusted to persons who have no knowledge of that art, nor any inclination to learn. It is often deemed sufficient if the instructer knows what the children

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are to learn; yet how often do we see learning treasured up in some capacious head, as though dispensing it would lessen the quality; and the well stored scull resembles a tub of frozen water, which contains indeed the element, but no tapping will draw it out. The faculty of imparting instruction is every thing to a teacher; and the art of teaching is itself to be learned. It is by the proper application of this art that such wonders are performed in the infant mind, and effects produced which to be believed must be witnessed.

The instruction of infants must differ essentially from the instruction of elder persons. Children cannot be expected to have at once the power of abstraction: they must be addressed by the medium of the senses. Ideas acquired by mere sensation must be first treasured up in abundance, and they will soon learn to combine these ideas by reflection. For a child to learn bare names, without learning things, is of little use; and they will learn names much faster when they are visibly applied to things. Children have an astonishing perception of the resemblance of pictures to their originals. You will frequently hear them naming the objects on crockery ware, such as the cat, the dog, mother, father, sister, &c., and where this is encouraged, it often exceeds belief. Infants have also an ear for music;—hence they are quiet while their nurse sings to them, and with their little bodies will keep time to music before they can speak. The organs, therefore, of sight and hearing are inlets to the mind of a child long before it can pronounce a syllable; and pronunciation may be much facilitated by conveying the idea along with the same. For instance, show a child before it can speak the picture of a cat; it immediately recognises the likeness of its cradle companion, and stretches out its little arms to embrace it. Underneath the picture may be placed the letters c, a, t; the child is soon taught to spell *cat*, and thus at once learns its letters, the name of its favourite animal, and how to spell it. This I observed in the infant school, in children of about eighteen months old, that could scarcely stand alone, who, on a picture of a cat being placed on the stand, would, as the monitor pointed with his stick, spell c, a, t, cat. The same with dog, cow, horse, &c., up to elephant, crocodile, rhinoceros, and other animals of which they had only seen two pictures. It soon becomes easy to make them acquainted with the natural history of these animals, and an infant learns the difference between the names of an elephant and a phæton, and how to spell them much sooner than some persons who ride in one of their own.

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Thus children acquire ideas of things along with their names. They are sensible of this acquisition and are delighted with it. Happiness and satisfaction are depicted on their countenances, and intelligence begins to mark their features. But the interest must be kept up by a constant variety, and a constant attention of the teachers to the monitors, and of the monitors to the individuals. They march to and from their lesson posts to music, and in order. There is something beautiful in order; it is 'Heaven's first law.' Add motion to order and you increase the effect, and then add music and the effect becomes irresistible.

It would delight you, had I time to delineate the simple process by which children under six years of age learn arithmetic—to enumerate to millions—to add, subtract, multiply, and divide; all of which instead of being irksome to the children, is one of their gayest and most exhilarating sports.

From objects near at hand, and within the range of sight, the transition is easy to objects remote, but still material. Thus an idea of a mountain, an island, an isthmus, &c. is more quickly and perfectly comprehended by an infant on inspecting the figures, or with a picture, than it can be by a youth at an academy, assisted by all the definitions which the schools can furnish, without a picture or model. By means of models the infant acquires ideas of astronomy, and of all other objects of the material creation.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

[The following thoughts form the commencing part of the Introduction to the Pestalozzian Primer, By Dr. John M. Keagy. Of this valuable work we should ere this time have given a notice at considerable length; had we not been waiting in expectation of a second edition, and in the hope of bringing before our readers the author's peculiar plan under the most favourable circumstances,—an advantage to which the intrinsic value of the work richly entitles it. The new engagements of the author, may, we fear, prevent another edition from appearing soon; and we improve the present opportunity for endeavouring to direct the attention of those of our readers who may not yet have seen this publication, to the useful and instructive principles which it embodies.

To some of our readers the views of Dr. Keagy may appear too theoretic and philosophical; but experience, guided and sustained by observation and reflection, will be found, we be-

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lieve, to sanction all his satements, and authorize his various suggestions for practical improvement. What an important change would be effected in the whole practice of teaching, were all instructers to cultivate the same spirit of investigation which is evinced in the following extracts!]

Mind is the subject upon which we operate in teaching a child. Some observations, then, on the nature and operations of the human mind, seem to be an indispensable preliminary in a work composed for the purpose of teaching children to think, and to read their own language understandingly.—Our remarks shall be as concise, and as explicit as we are able to make them.

Education in general may be defined to be the development and invigoration of all the useful susceptibilities or powers of a human being, whether bodily or mental.

Man, as to his susceptibilities of education, may be divided into the physiological functions, the moral feelings, and the intellectual powers.

The education of each of those portions of the human constitution must be attended to, if we wish to prepare a child to be happy and useful. Our business at present, however, will be chiefly to attend to the nature of the intellectual faculties, and the best mode of bringing them into action for the benefit of the possessor.

When we examine the nature of our thoughts, we find that they consist of a recurrence to our minds of *what we have seen, heard, tasted, smelled, or felt, and mental combinations and judgments concerning those things.* Of the truth of this position every one must be convinced, who has paid only a slight attention to the operations of his own mind.

An idea, then, is nothing more than a mental perception of an absent object, its qualities or actions; or it is the *mental* repetition of our sensations.

If our ideas are derived from our sensations, the primary business of intellectual education should be the cultivation and strengthening of the senses, and perceptive power through them. This would lay a solid foundation for subsequent acquirements.

By the perceptive power, we mean the faculty by which the mind is conscious of the various sensations communicated through the organs of sense. By the faculty of attention we give direction to our perceptive power, and are capable of holding an object before our mind so as to examine it minutely. The faculty of attention becomes, from this circumstance, the medi-

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um of furnishing our memory, judgment, and reasoning power with all the materials upon which they operate. If we are capable of fixing our attention vigorously, our memory and judgment will necessarily possess similar vigour. If, on the contrary, we possess but little power to direct and fix our attention, our memory and judgment will exhibit the same debility.—To acquire a habit, then, of fixing our attention steadily and undividedly on any object of thought, so as to trace out all its attributes and relations, is a matter of the greatest moment to a good system of education.

The cultivation of our senses by a course of suitable exercises invigorates our power of attention. The senses that should be particularly exercised are those of *sight* and *touch*. The reason why these two senses should receive the greatest cultivation, is, that the sensations acquired by them, form the pivot upon which all the other sensations revolve. It is through *touch* that we receive our ideas of *space* and *location;* and these ideas of space and location, as they exist in the perceptive faculty, constitute the substratum on which all our sensations rest. They act the part of the frame and the canvass whereon our imagination paints all her pictures and her scenes. And it is in this way that space and location become the great foundation for memory; for, without the aid of those elementary ideas, it would be the next thing to impossible to improve, or even to retain our faculty of reminiscence.

But although our ideas of space and location are *originated* by the sense of *touch*, they are soon *transferred* by association to the sense of *seeing*, in every human being, who has the use of his eyes. The infinite variety and *pleasing* appearance of colours may have a great influence in giving sight such a predominant superiority over the sense of touch. Whatever may be the cause, it is, however, an undoubted fact, that sight is the overwhelming sense, and that it bears off, on vigorous wings, all the other sensations of *taste*, *smell*, *hearing*, and even *touch* itself.

From what has been said we may venture the position, that *we think in pictures and scenes*. That this is true, is evident from the terms used in all languages to express our intellectual operations, as well as from the simple reflections of our own minds. Even our remembrance of sounds is associated with some visible scene; and we have no doubt that this fact, may, as a principle, be applied to a useful purpose in acquiring a knowledge of music. To exemplify the correctness of our views with regard to

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the influence of ocular perception and location in arresting attention and securing mental retention, we need only refer to the art of *mnemonics*; an art whose sole dependence is upon the visible imagery and symbols which it calls to its assistance. The surprising instances which Feinagle and other late teachers of mnemonics, give us of persons remembering long and difficult series of events, &c. can all be explained on this principle.—In our every day experience in life, we may also see the astonishing tenaciousness of our memory, whenever we associate visible scenes or symbols, and places, with ideas of any kind.

The method of teaching the deaf and dumb may likewise be brought forward as evidence in proof of the effect of visual sensation and location on the memory. In teaching these persons, every thing must be pictorial, scenic and pantomimic; and this is the cause why they learn so fast, and remember so well.

The more we reduce all our knowledge to this form, the more perfectly will it be remembered. This truth should, therefore, be made a *leading principle* in the education of the intellectual faculties. So far as it has been applied it has displayed the most valuable results. Every teacher is acquainted with the importance of maps in teaching geography, and of charts on the plan of Priestley and Le Sage, in teaching history and biography. Historical paintings, also, become the *nuclei* for concentrating and fixing thousands of ideas, which without their aid, would be as evanescent as a wasting cloud. For the truth of this we may appeal even to the little historical paintings on glass, and exhibited by a magic lantern, which have lately been brought into use. The explanatory lecture which accompanies these exhibitions is remembered most minutely by children who witness them. So likewise in natural philosophy and chemistry; lectures, apparatus and experiments form the scenery in which our scientific ideas permanently reside. Something similar may be said of all the natural sciences; and the view may be extended even to ethics, and the most abstruse of what are called the *abstract* sciences. For we can have no idea of the terms *good*, *bad*, *honest*, *fraudulent*, *benevolent*, *&c.* without identifying these words with scenic actions exhibiting those attributes of moral character.

From all this we may draw an important reference, viz. that *precepts, axioms, or abstract principles in any science, are of little or no use to the inexperienced.* An abstract principle can only be of service to him, who has been an experimenter, and has been in the habit of drawing inferences from what he has observed.

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That this is true in morals, we have additional evidence in the difference in the conduct of our Saviour towards his disciples, and towards the mass of the *uninitiated* people. To his *experienced* disciples he gave precepts; but to the people he spoke in parables or scenic representations of moral principles; that, thus having the moral actions, they might deduce their proper practical conclusions from them.

Hence we see, that both nature and revelation furnish us with proofs of the correctness of the method of teaching by induction from facts and scenes; the only true and speedy method of acquiring knowledge, and which, when it comes into general use, will change the face of the intellectual world.

Following out these views in a course of practical education, we ought to make *all nature a tablet of mnemonic symbols*, with which we might *naturally* associate appropriate ideas. All the scenic ideas thus located, would form a world of experimental facts, to supply us with funds in our generalization of principles; or in other words in the construction of our system of science.

There are two intellectual operations which should be continually kept in exercise in a course of practical education. These are generalization and analysis. By generalization we mean the classification of objects by some resemblance in some of their parts or attributes. By analysis is meant the examination of an individual object, for the purpose of separating it into its different parts, and noticing its various properties and actions. Correct and minute analysis becomes the source of accurate generalization; and generalization is the origin of all the sciences. These two operations may be compared to the reciprocal actions of the lever of a balance. They constitute, in the hands of a skilful teacher, a most important engine for exercising the pupil's mind, and increasing his store of knowledge. The analysis of objects into their parts and attributes cultivates the faculty of attention, and renders the memory tenacious. Generalization has a similar effect on our powers of recollection, by connecting to one point or principle, a vast variety of useful facts existing in different subjects.

In conducting a series of analyses and classifications with a scholar, we shall derive much advantage from questions. Interrogatories fix the attention and by that means strengthen it. It is in this way that the interrogatory system of teaching, lately introduced into England, Holland, and this country, has produced such valuable results. This is properly the method of the ancients revived. Their most efficient instructers taught

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on this plan; and the categories of Aristotle can be considered useful in no other light, than as they are the means of investigating a subject by a course of interrogatories; and in this way arresting attention and securing knowledge.

PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

Mr. Brougham.—It may be doubted if any man at present upon the earth is doing so much for the improvement of popular education and the diffusion of knowledge as Henry Brougham. He makes no long dissertations upon the defects of education, nor does he preach, or scowl, or whine, about the ignorance, the corruption, or even the wretchedness of his countrymen, or the world. He forms no beautiful theories of the perfectability of human nature, the elegance of virtue, the deformity of vice, or of the purity and elevation of a cultivated mind. He enters into no closet speculations upon the plans, by which, with a magic wand, he can in a trice change the earth into a paradise. He forms no patent machines, by which a knowledge of universal science can be thrown into the mind in one solid mass. He has never promulgated to the world any system of education, of morals and of civil society, by which all men may become enlightened without study or instruction, obedient without law, rich without industry, chaste and divinely pure without marriage, and equally learned, and pure, and elevated, and rich, and great, and happy, without effort; with nothing but 'circumstances.' No: he takes a more direct way of coming at the point,—more efficient measures for effecting his object. He asserts at once, and asserts boldly and fearlessly, that every man and every woman in the kingdom of Great Britain may be, and can be, and *shall* be enlightened. He asserts more, that they can and must enlighten *themselves*. Upon the heels of assertion, tread *efforts*. His tongue gives the word, and his hand the blow *together*. He maintains that no one in the kingdom is so much occupied as not to find time, and none so poor that they cannot spare money, to procure knowledge, to elevate their character, while it promotes and gives effect to their industry, and raises them above pleasures which are expensive as well as brutish. He not only tells his countrymen that they are

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able to instruct and elevate *themselves*, and by that means all procure a comfortable subsistence, respectability and influence; but immediately aids them in the work. He assists them in converting their senseless or pernicious amusements into rational and moral instruction. He aids them in forming societies, procuring books, cheap and simple apparatus to illustrate the sciences, and their application to the arts. He concentrates, combines and directs the intelligence, the science, the benevolence, and the wealth of the nation into one great fountain, from which may be diffused light, virtue, and happiness. He employs, as vehicles, to convey from the general fountain, these articles of public good, cheap *practical* books, journals, pamphlets and tracts, which are scattered into workshops, farmhouses, taverns, and private families, in every corner of the kingdom. He urges upon men of learning and science to throw off their flummery, the learned phrases, the host of verbiage, which entangle and bewilder science in a dark and impenetrable maze, and present it in its native simplicity, and beauty, and grandeur: as the modest, but efficient and dignified handmaid, to administer to the wants of the virtuous and hardy mechanic and of the honest, weather-worn farmer. He presses upon the labouring classes and even the poor and ignorant, their ability and the necessity of procuring and using the materials which the learned and the rich have furnished at their hands, as fabrics of their own growth in knowledge, respectability and influence,—that by exerting they will increase their strength; that by depending upon themselves, they may possess and enjoy independence of others.

The motto which he holds up in conspicuous letters before them is, 'Begin.' If they cannot procure a library, borrow a pamphlet, or a tract, upon 'useful knowledge,' and meet, and read and converse upon its contents. If they cannot erect or purchase a building, rent or borrow a public or a private room, till they can procure a better. If they cannot procure a laboratory and a complete set of chemical apparatus, let them borrow from a kitchen, a pitcher, a bowl, and a tumbler, and from the physician, a phial and an acid, and take the examples of a Franklin, a Priestley, or a Black, to direct their efforts. If they cannot procure an orrery patented and constructed in London, intended to illustrate at one view, the numerous and complicated motions of all the bodies in the solar system, but fitted to confuse and bewilder the mind, let them take an orange or an apple,

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and show simply and clearly the shape, surface, and motions of the earth.

If they have not a complete set of mechanical powers neatly constructed, and finely polished by the hand of a physical instrument maker in the metropolis, use a cane to show the principles of the lever, and the first circular pully within their reach, to prove that the lever, the pully, and the wheel and axis, are but varieties of the same thing. If they cannot give lectures with logical arrangement, rhetorical figures, and rounded sentences, let them congratulate themselves that ideas are better than sounds, and facts than flourishes. If they cannot learn in detail all the minutiæ in a complete system of science, let them prove by some simple experiment a single *practical* principle, which they constantly witness in the motion of their limbs, in a wheel, a plough, or an edged tool. If every person cannot be a profound or a critical scholar, he may be an enlightened, respectable, and useful citizen.

This great statesman, and distinguished patriot congratulates his countrymen, that religion or government has nothing to fear from enlightened minds and elevated morals. That 'the time is past and gone, when *bigots* could persuade mankind, that the lights of philosophy were to be extinguished, as dangerous to religion; and when *tyrants* could proscribe the instructers of the people as enemies to their power. It is preposterous to imagine, that the enlargement of our acquaintance with the laws which regulate the universe, can dispose us to unbelief. To tyrants indeed, and to bad rulers, the progress of knowledge among the mass of mankind, is a just object of terror: it is fatal to them and their designs: they know this by unerring instinct, and unceasingly they dread the light. But they will find it more easy to curse than to extinguish.'

Mr. Editor, since one bold and elevated spirit, by urging to immediate *action*, his ignorant, degraded and suffering countrymen, to acquire knowledge, that they may assume the respectability and the power which tyrants and oppressors have wrested from their hands, has in a few years given greater purity and health, and will eventually present a new creation, in the intellectual and moral atmosphere resting upon Great Britain, I hope that your Journal, that every daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly Journal, in our Union; that every statesman and patriot, that every teacher and parent, that every clergman, lawyer, physician, farmer, mechanic, and merchant; that every man, woman, and child, will say, in the language of Mr. Brougham, and in a

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voice which will be heard from Canada to Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific,—'BEGIN.'—*Mass. Journal.*

'I cannot pass this topic, without a small tribute to the merits of Mr. Brougham. His name will go down to posterity blessed with the grateful praises of more than one enlightened nation. Possessing by nature a mind gifted with extraordinary powers, he has improved them to the utmost by laborious culture. Eminent as he is in the profession of law, distinguished as he is in the councils of his country, his mind has cast deep glances into every branch of science, and is adorned with the sterling gems of literature; and thus accomplished, he has ever laboured in the cause of popular education with an industry, zeal, and power, altogether unwearied and unparalleled. The wreaths which he has gained are invaluable, for they are bloodless. The honours that encircle his name will be rendered brighter by time, for they are won by no well fought battle, save the battle of liberal sentiments against intolerance, aristocracy, and bigotry. When all the "pomp and circumstance of glorious war" shall be looked upon with indifference or disgust, when the name of *conqueror* shall be synonymous with that of *destroyer*, such great and enlightened men as Brougham will receive the well earned meed of universal homage. His writings and his projects have spread, with the rapidity of lightning, as far as the English language is spoken. They breathe a spirit consonant with the intellectual character of such an era as this; they breathe a spirit of liberality, philanthropy, and generous enthusiasm. His name must be forever remembered; for it will be indeliby inscribed upon the noblest monument that could be erected to his fame—the University of London.'—*Mr. Felton's Address at the close of the Second Term of the Livingston County High School, in Genesee, New York.*

AMERICAN LYCEUM.*

Libraries.—The advantages of public libraries are so numerous and so evident, that almost every town in New England,

* This useful and prosperous institution comes the nearest of any thing we know, in this country, to the ideas realized in Mr. Brougham's excellent plans

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has, in some periods of its history, attempted to procure them. And it is not a little to be regretted, that institutions which promise so much, and are certainly capable of accomplishing all they promise, should generally disappoint their projectors and friends. It is believed that nine tenths of the public libraries which have been established in New England since its first settlement, have been sold at public auction, distributed among the proprietors, or after a few years or perhaps months, been suffered to remain useless upon their shelves. Numerous mechanics' and apprentices' libraries have been collected with the strongest hopes that they might create a taste, and introduce a general practice of reading among these most interesting and important classes of the community; but experience has shown, that something more is necessary to introduce a general practice of reading among mechanics, than to place books within their reach. These facts are certainly to be regretted, but they do not prove that public libraries, or that mechanics' or apprentices' libraries have not done much for the general diffusion of knowledge, or that under proper regulation and management, they may not throw a powerful and salutary influence over the whole community, and do all that their supporters could expect or wish. It is a natural and proper inquiry what are the causes which throw libraries into disuse, or prevent in any measure, the effects which their friends are led to expect from their establishment. The immediate and evident cause, every one must see, is the want of interest in the subjects they contain: a want of taste for reading. We must then inquire why this want of interest and taste? It is because there are no measures taken, no occasions given, calculated to produce and cultivate them. Where a course of weekly or periodical exercises is instituted in connexion with libraries, and subjects introduced which the books treat of, and their proprietors or their children furnished by the means of meetings, with convenient opportunities of taking them, there is no complaint of their remaining upon their shelves. The question then becomes, who shall have the first reading, and how soon they can give others the use of them. And these exercises and meetings not only bring into immediate requisition, the various public libraries accessible, but in very many cases, they have induced individuals to purchase books for private use. And I think that any person who will for a moment examine

for popular improvement in England. The Lyceum is happily adapted to the circumstances and opportunities of our population, in country towns and districts particularly.—*Ed.*

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facts, or the nature of the subject, must conclude, that a regular series of exercises connected with libraries, must in every case, as they certainly have done, produce a reciprocal and powerful action between them, and render them mutual helps to each other. Such is the object of Lyceums.—*Am. Traveller.*

Academies.—Where Lyceums have been established in the vicinity of Academies, there has never failed to arise between them a reciprocal, powerful, and salutary action. The teachers and pupils of the Academy furnish useful and interesting members and attendants to the meetings of the Lyceum. The instruction given by the teacher, and the exercises in reading, speaking, composition and other branches, performed by his pupils, give life, interest, and utility to the meetings attended by persons of various pursuits and ages. If the exercises of the pupils interest the audience, they animate and instruct themselves: and that, not merely on these more public occasions, but in their ordinary course of studies in the Academy, they read better, speak better, and study 'harder,' and make greater efforts generally, under the impression that they are to be placed in a more public situation.

If the aid given by the teacher and pupils of an Academy, to meetings for mutual improvement, render them more interesting and instructive to be attended by the various classes of citizens in a town, they too, in their turn, afford instruction and facilities for the greater prosperity of the Academy. A clergyman, a physician, a lawyer, a farmer, a mechanic, and not unfrequently females, throw contributions into the common stock of entertainment, in which all may participate. In this way most interesting dissertations have been given, upon work, upon mechanics, railways, canals, fruit trees, gardening, fuel, prisons, the stomach, showing the effects of ardent spirits and other stimulants upon it, and economy, besides numerous anonymous communications upon miscellaneous subjects.

The Academy is not only aided by instructions given by other members of the Lyceum, but they have the use of their apparatus, not only at the weekly meetings for mutual improvement, but for illustrating subjects in the regular course of academical studies.

When professed lecturers are employed by the Lyceum to illustrate by course of experiments, the principles of any science, the pupils of the Academy have been permitted, under the direction of their preceptor, to attend gratuitously, or for a small consideration.

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Indeed, all the influences arising between Academies and Lyceums, from their incidental connexion, have, wherever the experiment has been made, proved to be strictly *mutual*, harmonious, and salutary.—*Ibid.*

NOTICE.

The American Reader, containing Extracts suited to excite a love of Science and Literature, and to improve the moral Character. Designed for the use of Schools. Brookfield: E. & G. Merriam. Boston: Pierce and Williams. 1828. 12mo. pp. 276.

The coincidence of names, between this volume and Richardson's American Reader, of which notice was taken at p. 574 of Vol. I. of the Journal, is, we presume, an accidental circumstance. It is rather unfortunate, however, that two volumes, and especially two school books, should bear the same name; since parents and teachers must occasionally be misled in the purchase of either work. As priority of claim lies with the volume first published, the compiler of this would perhaps do well, in subsequent editions, to adopt a more specific designation in his title page.

The objects of the Reader now before us, are chiefly of a moral and religious nature, and the selection of pieces is in strict accordance with the design of the work. The lessons consist of interesting extracts, chiefly from recent productions of distinguished writers, and bear the recommendation of names which rank high in the mental and literary world.

There is room, however, to doubt whether pieces of the abstract and general character prevailing in didactic and religious discourses, (and from such sources, chiefly, this volume is compiled,) admit of sufficient scope and freedom in the *exercise of reading*,—the great, or, at least, the immediate object of such books. If we would have boys and girls read well,—that is to say, with interest, ease, and animation, we must not hand them a sermon to read, but something level to their capacity, and congenial to their natural disposition,—a story, a description, a simple piece of poetry. If many years' practice and experience in the teaching of reading may entitle us to speak with freedom on this point, we should say decidedly, that, of all the pupils we have ever taught, whether youth or adults, nine tenths had acquired their worst habits of voice from the early reading of formal and didactic lessons in their school books.

The volume before us, we could not recommend for young classes; but we think it may be very instructive and very acceptable to pupils who are old enough to use it. It would be an excellent reading book for colleges, and the best, as far as we know, that could be selected by young men preparing for the theological profession. In what we have said of this volume we would not be understood as intimating that it is one exclusively of a didactic character. There is, indeed, a very considerable variety in the pieces; and this we think recommends the work the more strongly to classes prepared to read in it to advantage. The prevailing topics of the work, however, as well as its general style, would seem naturally to restrict it to readers sufficiently advanced in education, to have acquired a good deal of mental character.

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AMERICAN

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EARLY EDUCATION.

[The following article it will be perceived, is, in some respects, explanatory of others which appeared in preceding numbers of our work. It may contribute to a clear understanding of the writer's views, were our readers to revert to those articles, and reperuse them previous to reading the present. The sentiments of our contributor are such, we think, as must commend themselves to the attention of all who take an interest in the subject of mental cultivation, in its most important departments. We would take the liberty of soliciting the particular attention of parents, and of the teachers of childhood, to the principles developed in this essay. The whole subject of early education is, we doubt, but little understood because little observed. The mind of infancy is too often depressed and degraded by imperfect and low conceptions of its original worth and latent energies; and even when most assiduously cultivated, it is not unfrequently distorted and abused by being subjected to a discipline altogether unworthy of it, and tending to impair its native force, and to divest it of the ennobling consciousness of its freedom, and of rational and inspiring hopes of unlimited progress in its action.

The religious impressions of early childhood are seldom those which the zealous parent is most anxious to produce. The little being who is subjected too often to the process of arbitrary injunctions and theoretic inculcation, through the medium of a catechism, or the lessons of one who speaks from the experience perhaps derived from half a century's acquaintance with evil without and within, has but little sympathy with what he is

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taught, and probably as little understanding of it. He finds his religion in the benign arrangements for his happiness which he reads; without prompting, in the cheering light, in the serenity of heaven, in the vastness and grandeur of the firmament, and in the looks of love which are ever beaming on him from the human face, and in the wondrous thought of the great invisible Being, like his own mind, who has given him his life, and all its happy accompaniments. He has never broken the great law of love; and in the silent but eloquent purity and tenderness of his own *example*, he manifests himself possessed of perhaps the qualification of a higher moral character than has been attained by his teacher.

The human mind, instructers should never forget, is not a material something, thrown down before them to be moulded and fashioned by a routine of mechanical operations. It is an intelligent and voluntary agent, entitled to the free use of all its powers, and capable to a great extent, from its very constitution of at once choosing its own path, and shedding no slight proportion of the light which is to guide it.

The thoughts expressed in the following article, however, do more justice to this subject that it can receive within the limits of an introductory paragraph; and we present them to our readers in the full expectation that their truth and value will be deeply felt.]

Education is essentially the work of the *individual*; and the most that those around him can do, is to assist him. It is the result of a reciprocal action,—the human mind on one side, and the external world on the other.

In the phrase, external world, is here included not only the material universe, but the providence of God. Whatever does not originate in the individual, is the external world to him.

The first agency of the external world, in regard to the human mind, is, in creating its relation to space. The body determines what portion of the universe shall be first explored by the soul; and the difference in cast of character, which is productive of so much that interesting in human life, may derive its origin from each individual's thus setting out from a different portion of the universe. It is not improbable that all the involuntary and original differences of intellect, in regard to degree, as well as characteristics, may be traced to physical organization. Difference of organization necessarily induces diversity of mental action. Sometimes sight is denied; and

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Brown has expressed in a very lively manner the difference such a deprivation, if universal, would make in some of the sciences. The colours and forms of nature in vain surround the blind. And there are, no doubt, physical deficiencies shutting up the mind in certain corresponding departments, which are quite as important as deficiency of sight but not obvious by any external sign.

The physical organization is therefore to be considered, in the science of education; and in no department of education, can so much assistance be given as in this. Nature does a great deal before the age of reflection. The appetites are keen; but the mind is also impressible: and it is as common, perhaps, to see children absorbed in play, till they forget the claims of the body, as to be absorbed in gratifications of the appetite, till they cease to be observing and curious. In both cases, when they occur, a dissatisfied state is produced, and the parents' affection and care come to the aid of helplessness. A mother's instinct does a great deal in finding out the peculiarities of constitution, and managing them according to the exigencies of the case. But the mother's instinct may be aided by reasoning; and, moreover, all assistance is vain, unless the individual is led to take up the subject for himself.

A child should have the mental advantages of temperance early pointed out to him, and be made to feel his responsibilities upon the point of preserving pure and uncontaminated the body God has given him. We must know all our avenues with the universe, in order that we may keep all open. If it is not given us to determine our relation to space in the first instance, or our degree of communication with the universe, yet we are free to be true or false to the elevation on which we are placed, and it is ours to preserve for our mind the free range which God has intended for it.

And it is not only necessary that we should form a due estimate of our own powers, in order to hold ourselves up to the exertion of which we are capable, but also in order to remit exertion, when the nerves and the vital spirits give the sign. Mental action often so disorders the organization by which the individual hangs upon the present system, that it ceases altogether. The frequent instances of insanity and idiocy from intense study, should produce caution and watchfulness. There are doubtless many near approaches to these states in persons, who are not considered insane, and these persons perhaps are more miserable and dangerous than those who are obviously insane;

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for in lucid intervals they lament the mistakes they are not responsible for, besides inflicting misery upon others who do not understand their condition. Much of partial insanity, as well as complete insanity, is doubtless occasioned by intemperate mental exertion We should remember that when either proceeds from this cause, it is not only our misfortune, but, (and especially if we have been forewarned of it,) our fault. God has given us a physical organization, and brought the spirit into circumscription of it. He has said to the tide of mind as to the tide of ocean, 'hitherto shalt thou come and no farther,' and though we may disobey the command we shall not gain. When the boundary line is carried away, there will be chaos in one case as in the other. God was the author of both body and mind, and certainly has united them, for the welfare of the better part; and has enjoined their tranquil association in the command 'be sober.' It is a vice to 'get drunk with the wine of immortality,' for it makes us forget the claims of the body; though obviously it is not so degrading a vice, as that inebriation which makes us forget the claims of the spirit. Friends and teachers may do a great deal in making all this obvious to the mind of their pupil; but after all it is himself that must do what is to be done. We cannot be temperate and wise for our pupil—love him as we may. He must perceive the effect of mental action upon his physical organization, and the signs by which he is to know when the landmarks are approached. He must know the limits of his power in order to be made sensible of the extent of his power, his consequent responsibility, and also where his responsibility ends.

We have spoken of an action of the external world, which commences prior to mental action. We will now proceed to that which answers to the touch of spirit.

Attention, (always an individual act,) is a characteristic of spirit as contradistinguished from matter. It brings the individual into a constantly extending contact with the external world, which developes its hidden laws, and reveals its beauty to a spirit kindred in nature to the creating Mind; until the whole intellect is science, and the whole movement is taste.

To direct this power of attention and to neutralize whatever would interfere with it, is an office of education. It can hardly be said to depend on education for its first impulse. That is derived from within, or, to speak more correctly, immediately from the Creator.

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As in the moral nature, there is, in the first place, innocence —which almost deserves the name of an active impulse to goodness—given by the Creator at the beginning, while progress in goodness is made the act of the individual, being only given to ardent desire, or in other words to prayer; so is it in the intellectual nature. The first impulse of attention is given by the Creator—it is the birth of the mind,—while the progress depends on exertion. And assistance may be given to the child, in that period of aimless curiosity and activity which finds its end, for the time being, because its delight, in acting.

Did life always place individuals in situations as strikingly interesting as it does in some instances, there would be little need of any rules upon this subject, laid down in books. Experience, or even observation of some of the more interesting relations in which human beings stand to each other, will often produce the consciousness of innate power. If this consciousness is produced in the days of purity, assistance from any minds below the supreme Mind, will hardly be needed.

But situations, early in life, are not always strikingly interesting. It becomes, then, the duty of those around children to meet attention with what may

——'wake an echo in the soul
Which cannot sleep again.'

Here, however, a caution must be suggested. The action of human beings upon human beings, is not like the action of material nature, always happy. Material nature moves by the divine will, and if the receptive mind means well, there is always a benefit. Men act often with a will at variance from the divine, and may therefore do harm. There are guards, it is true, against doing harm; conscience in the one case, and self-respect in the other: but, that providence does not always neutralize the harm done, is evident both from observation and revelation. God, according to Moses' report, visits the sins of the fathers upon the children to a third and fourth generation; and the history of the oriental nations, of the Roman Catholic Church, and indeed the state of the whole world bears witness to 'what man has made of man.'

Perhaps nothing would quicken attention so vitally, as to bring the mind to observe itself, as an object, very early. But the mind cannot be said to have any existence, independently of its relations; and of its numerous relations which are to be selected? The answer to this question is easy; the most important of its relations, is, at the same time the simplest, its rela-

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tion to the supreme Being,—not only for its existence, but for its continual expansion. It is not to be supposed that any very adequate notions can be formed of the supreme Being. But erroneous notions will not be so likely to arise at this early period as at a later one. The invisibleness of its own mind will prevent the child, if that analogy is pointed out, from having any imagination of the supreme Mind in the likeness of any thing which is in the heaven above, or in the earth beneath, before which it may bow down and worship. The absolute independence of place, which it realizes, in its own principle of thought, may help it to receive the right impression from the word omnipresence, an attribute which includes omniscience and omnipotence. And surely, as to moral character, that of the true God will be the most likely to answer to the idea of power, in the mind of a fearless innocent child.

The power of piety in a child's mind to develope the intellect, is not probably at all understood. It cannot be measured by any effects which may have been produced in the minds of persons in whom the religious affections were not the first development. It has been very acutely observed, that a vast deal of what is called piety in the world is only a mode of the passions, and that nothing is so rare as religion, a moral sentiment. It is obvious that any 'mode of the passions' will be unlikely to stimulate the mind to a healthy action. But piety, a mode of the innocent, tender, uncalculating heart of childhood, must be pure; for there are no passions awake which can take its name. The consequences of piety in such a case, have not been shown forth even in theory.

It may be remarked, on the first view of this subject, that the very circumstance of being led to the supreme Being, by the analogy of the mind itself, will give impulse to the habit of looking upon the mind as the most sacred of all things. In the most sacred of all things, by consequence, will be sought the oracle, the guiding principle; and the whole soul will be prepared for the light which the christian religion has poured upon the connexion of the human being with its Father in heaven.

An obvious reason why the mind considered in connexion with the Creator, stimulates attention so vitally, is this; that it is a single, and still not a circumscribed object of which attention may become weary. In its connexion with the Creator, the mind is infinite. If the recorded promise, 'Ask, and ye shall receive,' is to stand as the voice of the Creator forever,

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where is the limit of the soul's expansion? It is true this asking and receiving refers expressly to the moral nature; but one part of our nature cannot stand still while the other is advancing. Indeed the soul is one, and these terms, *moral nature* and *intellectual nature*, are only invented to correspond to our way of viewing the soul: in comprehending the laws and ideas (if we may so speak) of the supreme Being it is *intellectual*,—in loving and delighting in them, *moral*. A child's mind will make no such distinctions, and is not puzzled by our abstractions.

But attention will fasten itself on external objects, do what we may to turn it inward. And it is desirable that it should. God does not intend that we shall never eat of the tree of knowledge, though he forbids it until we have eaten of the tree of life. The mind looks about, and attaches itself to what is around it. To some objects it attaches itself with delight and love, to others it can hardly be said to attach itself; but they become less and less disagreeable, till habit at last makes them as familiar, and perhaps almost as necessary, as what at first excited love. It is evident, however, that the former class of objects must stimulate attention by touching the deepest springs of the soul, while the latter tend to puzzle its simplicity, and quench its delicate sensibilities, until it loses attention, and seems to become dead matter.

To direct attention, then, to such objects as may address what is best in the soul, may be understood by innocence, and keep up attention,—is an office of education.

That there may be less danger of falling into any expression implying that the mind of a child can be passively operated upon, we will speak of what the individual can do for himself, when conscious of wandering thoughts or tendency to inertion, and desirous of remedy.

If he wishes to fix his attention on any particular object, in preference to other objects, he must take it up in such a manner that it will engage his activity, and if possible his physical activity. Assent is not sufficient exercise of mind to produce any ulterior effects. Reading that requires only assent often dissipates, rather than concentrates attention. Every figure and every word has abundance of associations, and leads to endless digressions. Bodily exercise of itself is not always of avail; for every passing breeze, every image or sound of nature and art wakes associated subjects; but important business, requiring both bodily and mental exertion, is generally a complete cure.

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There is, however, an insane concentration of attention, which is to be guarded against. This is generally made known by some effect on the body, which, as we have hinted before, is to be attended to, as an intimation of providence to relax. We would not be understood to deny

> 'That there are powers
> Which of themselves our minds impress;
> That we may feed these minds of ours
> In a wise passiveness,'

a doctrine which is full of comfort to the sick and infirm. But children do not often suffer in their minds from too great concentration of thought, if they are in good health, and therefore we will not pursue this subject.

The intelligent teacher, may apply the above remarks to his own duties. Without forgetting, or allowing his pupil to forget, that the cultivation of the mind is an individual's own task, the teacher may render assistance to the volatile and the indolent, by giving them something *to do*.

It is on account of its employing their physical activity, that *drawing* is so very beneficial to children. But this, as has been said, is not all the use of drawing. It may conduce to the learning of geography, natural history, to fixing the mind on the beauties of nature, and to writing. The last is of incalculable advantage, when acquired early, for it is never too early for a child to express what he knows; and this could be done on paper better than orally by almost any child, but for the mechanical labour of writing.

Among studies, *arithmetic* is one which cannot be acquired passively, at least on the present system of Colburn. But here there should be caution used. The instructer must watch his pupils lest they catch the results of calculation without the process. If arithmetic is made a subject of memory more harm than good is done. It will be found that there is a difference in children about apprehending numbers. The mind at first only sees individuals, and has no idea of number. This state of mind is of different duration in different instances, and *force* should not be applied;—violence never will develope the mind. But children understand quantity when they are too immature to understand number. Since this is the case it becomes a question, if a system of geometry, on the plan of Colburn, in which the learner is the discoverer, is not a *desideratum* among school books.

We now come to the question whether the languages or the natural sciences are the best for the development of the mind:

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A few observations only, on this extensive subject, can be made at this time.

The most important of these observations is this, no study can be a disadvantage on which the mind can be brought to act; and every study which is so presented that the mind is passive with regard to it, may do it harm.

The natural sciences may be so taught that no exercises of mind are regarded but assent and memory. If this is the case attention will soon relax, and the variety of the objects which every science presents, will produce wandering thoughts. These are quite as bad for the mind as inertion, which, it is said, is often produced by confining the attention to the construction of sentences.

On the other hand the sciences may be taught not only experimentally but religiously. The pupil may be led to God through the material world, after having once become acquainted with the nature of the divine Mind, through his own soul. When the natural sciences can be taught in this manner, there can be no doubt of their beneficial effects.

But language may be made interesting, and engage the activity of the mind also. Language is intimately connected with the mind. In no period of infancy do we see such rapid improvement, so great a stride, as when the child is learning to talk. If the same principles are pursued in learning another language, which providence pursues in teaching the native tongue, an equal developement may take place again. The pupil must have a great deal of assistance, it is true; and so a child who is learning to talk requires assistance. We are also presupposing our pupil has contemplated the mind as an object, in some degree. The laws of the human mind are deducible from language, as is the divine mind from nature; and it is a no less metaphysical research, to seek the Deity in nature, than to seek the human mind in language; if indeed it is correct to say that the Deity can be found in nature except through a consciousness of the human mind. A child therefore is not any more prepared for the natural sciences than for language, who is not capable of a degree of metaphysical research. Children may *draw* the objects of nature before they can generalize or abstract; but they cannot study nature with a view to science.

It must not be understood that there is any intention of depreciating the natural sciences. Nature is sacred like its Author. But language which springs from what is the especial

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image of the Divinity, is on the same account, sacred also; and all that has been said against the study of it, only applies to wrong methods of teaching it. There are many reasons why a key to the human mind, as it is exhibited under influences different from those of our native country, is more desirable than almost any possession. If our love of nature implies that nature was intended to influence us, our social principle implies that our fellow creatures are also intended to influence us still more nearly. 'One man dies, and another man enters into the fruits of his labours,' but how is this in the intellectual world except by language? And if the 'languages' are to be learned at all, the youthful season, when assistance is provided, is the best; for no study admits so much assistance as this.

In order to do justice to this subject a great deal of detail would be necessary. But these hints, perhaps, will be sufficient to show that in choosing between these two classes of study, convenience, the probable future circumstances of the individual, and the particular state of society, may be consulted; while, in many cases, both fields of intellectual exertion may be traversed simultaneously. But it is the great office of education, not to be forgotten by teacher or pupil, to keep true to the method of cultivation, the true principle of the growth of mind, *individual exertion* on conscious responsibility.

These observations upon the theory of education were suggested by some remarks made in common conversation upon the few detached articles in the Journal, bearing the signature E. N. Q. The objection that touched the writer most nearly was, that religion seemed to be left out of the question. It will be seen now, that religion—a moral exercise—is the *life* of the whole; and when it is felt what teachers can do *for their* pupils, and *what they cannot do*, it will perhaps appear less romantic than it has appeared to some, that school education in the case of girls might end at a comparatively early period; and less unreasonable that the earliest instructions are by far the most important, and require the most talent in the teacher.

E. N. Q.

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AMERICAN LYCEUM.

[The following article embraces the substance of several statements submitted to the meeting recently held in Boston, for the purpose of taking into consideration the subject of the above institution.]

Among the results which may be anticipated from a complete organization of the American Lyceum, are the following:

First.—The encouragement of *infant schools*, and aid in their establishment in towns and villages throughout the country. This can be done by furnishing a complete system, and constant supply of books and apparatus as they are needed, in the various stages of the progress of these schools, and furnishing the most natural, complete, and practical system and arrangement, in their lessons and exercises—the best fitted to develope the faculties, expand the mind, interest the feelings, cultivate a taste for intellectual and moral enjoyments, and to qualify the pupils for the various avocations to which they may be called.

2dly. The improvement of common *district schools*. This may be effected, by aiding the introduction of a uniform and improved system of books and instruction, and causing the order and arrangement of studies and exercises to be so defined that the books, studies, and plan of operations in schools need not be changed, with every change of teachers, but that all teachers may be aided by having their career of procedure so far laid out, that schools may advance in a regular and constant progress, whoever is at their head, and however frequent the change.

District schools, besides receiving greater regularity and efficiency in their ordinary exercises may be greatly aided by opportunities furnished by Lyceums for the improvement of teachers, by the use of their books and apparatus, for a weekly course of mutual exercises, at which or at others, their eldest pupils may be admitted, and induced to engage in them.

3dly. The improvement of *academies*. Wherever Lyceums have been established in connexion with academies, a reciprocal and harmonious action has uniformly arisen between them, greatly for the benefit of both. Lyceums have furnished various exercises and sources of instruction to the members of academies, which they could not otherwise enjoy, and the teach-

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ers of academies, with their pupils, have given strength and interest to the exercises of Lyceums.

4thly. The establishment or patronage of practical seminaries, and in particular of *a central Lyceum* or *Lyceum school*,* to be aided by the collection of specimens, books, apparatus, models, implements, &c. received from the various branches; the accumulation of useful works of every description, but particularly those relating to science, and, among these, the various foreign and domestic periodical publications. Lecturers and teachers, for successive portions of the year, would be required; and in due season buildings, and other requisite accommodations for instructers and pupils. A great school of practical education would thus be opened, and a judicious exertion of local influence would establish such an institution at little pecuniary expense. With such a central establishment might be connected workshops, for the construction of apparatus and models, to be transmitted to the branch institutions, and to contribute, by the sums received in payment for them, to the enlargement and prosperity of the school.

No fact is more certain than that improvements in education have not kept pace with improvements in the arts. The wants of farmers and mechanics and other practical men are very far from being supplied. The agriculture of New England in its present state admits and requires vastly more science than it receives or can procure. The sciences of geology and chemistry, especially, might, with great ease, be brought to bear directly and powerfully upon the interests of farmers; and while these would enlighten their minds and elevate their characters, they would give greater success and certainty to their truly useful pursuits. The numerous and important manufacturing operations now going on in our country, involve a vast quantity of science, both in chemistry and natural philosophy. And it is certain that no mechanic, in the present state of the arts, can be highly accomplished in his profession, without some knowledge of the principles on which the success of his operations depends. The business of civil engineering though a modern profession in this country, is already an extensive and important, and to those well skilled in it, a lucrative one. But to be a skilful engineer, some knowledge of the whole circle of science is nearly indispensable. Where can farmers, mechanics,

* It gives us much pleasure to observe that this excellent object is already in good progress.—Ed.

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and civil engineers resort to procure the science they need, and especially the application of that science to their several pursuits? If our country provides any opportunities for them, these fall very far short of their wants both in number and kind. To supply all the wants of practical men in the present state of the arts, as much science (though perhaps different in kind, and certainly different, and infinitely more minute and thorough in its application,) as is taught in any college or university in our country, would be required. And it may be a question whether seminaries more resembling the academy at West Point, than a college, differing, however, from that in some of the sciences taught, but more in the application of those sciences, and especially in substituting agricultural and mechanical operations for military exercises, would not come near to what is required by the arts, in their present elevated and scientific character. Between such an institution and the town Lyceums in the vicinity, there would be a reciprocal and powerful action. Lyceums need teachers: the seminary would supply them. They need apparatus: it will be made at the seminary.

Public expectation has, for some years, been directed with unusual interest to the means of raising the profession of teaching to a higher point of character and efficiency than heretofore; and our free schools have been made a particular subject of legislative enactment. Nothing however, has as yet been effected, which could be said fairly to have realized the views of the friends of popular education, or the wishes of the community at large. The object in view is, in fact, a difficult one to accomplish. Without a vast expenditure of the public money, to enable teachers in general to defray the expenses incident to a thorough professional education, very little can be done towards any extensive result. For no teacher of a common school is in the receipt of a salary sufficient to maintain him throughout the year,—much less to admit of his appropriating a part of his income to the acquisition of personal and professional advantages.

The general and effectual improvement of schools must, in every vicinity, be expected to grow up on the spot, and not to be implanted from abroad. It must be made to spring up in the minds of parents, committees, and teachers, simultaneously. It cannot be carried forward by a divided influence. Able and vigilant school committees can accomplish but little, if opposed by ill informed parents and ignorant instructers. Intelligent and faithful parents must fail of their wishes, unless aided by

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enlightened committees, and well qualified teachers; and teachers, though ever so well qualified, must always be disabled from exertion, if thwarted or neglected by parents and committees.

A popular institution for *mutual improvement* seems the only thing which can combine and concentrate all the requisite interests and influences, by which this great object is to be promoted. The Lyceum, in a word, by its peculiar constitution, offers the means and opportunities for a general advancement of the community, in subjects connected with instruction. Let a branch of this institution be put into operation in a given vicinity, and a mental excitement follows, which may be turned with great effect on the subject of education. People meet to acquire knowledge; they learn something more than ever of its nature; they perceive how it ought to be acquired, and how it may be best communicated; they become possessed of a considerable accession of intelligence; they form ideas of what is required in a useful course of popular education; they observe the obvious defects of instruction, as usually conducted; and they are prepared to propose and second active efforts for improvement.

Such has been the case generally, where the Lyceum is established. New and higher views of education have been acquired, and the requisite measures taken for carrying these views into effect. Several branches of useful science have been found likely to form a valuable addition to the common course of instruction at schools; and means have been provided for prosecuting these, at the meetings of the Lyceum. Teachers usually become active members of such associations, and thus enlarge their own stock of knowledge; while they are introduced to new and more practical modes of imparting what they have acquired. The elder classes of pupils of both sexes are also deeply interested in the Lyceum: they sometimes are permitted to assist in performing easy experiments, and exhibiting simple apparatus, in illustration of various subjects: they obtain access to collections of plants and minerals, and perhaps to a pretty good selection of books, furnished by the members of the Lyceum. Employment is thus furnished for leisure hours; a taste for useful reading is cultivated, and an impulse given to personal improvement, which it lacked before; but which now renders a virtuous ambition for knowledge one of the ingredients of character, among the active as well as the sedentary classes of society.

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Enlarged ideas of education, it has been hinted, are acquired from the operation of a Lyceum. This is evident in the immediate turn which the attention receives towards practical and useful objects. The history of towns, their topography, their geology, mineralogy, and botany, become subjects of investigation and discussion. The elements of chemistry, the mechanic powers, the useful arts, and numerous kindred topics, are introduced,—all highly adapted to render the meetings of the Lyceum, one of the best schools of information, which could be afforded by the amplest endowments.

5thly. The encouragement of *libraries*. No one can fail to regret that institutions so benevolent, and so general in their object, as public libraries, should not answer the highest expectations of their founders and friends. But although these institutions have, it is believed, been highly and extensively useful wherever they have been established, it must still be acknowledged, that they have not, in many cases, produced those great and lasting results, which their nature and design have led their friends to anticipate. It is believed, that at least nine tenths of the public libraries, which have been established in New England, since its first settlement, have been sold at public auction, distributed among their proprietors, or fallen into neglect and disuse. Nor have those truly benevolent and patriotic institutions, mechanics' and apprentices' libraries, excited that extensive and lasting thirst for reading and information, which might naturally be hoped. These facts force us to the conclusion, that some more direct and immediate stimulus is needed, to induce young people generally to read, than to have books placed within their reach.

They need to be called together, and subjects of knowledge presented directly to their view, to their inquiry, and consideration. Sympathy, that powerful mover to the noblest and best, as well as the lowest and worst of human passions, and human efforts, ought, and needs, in this case, to be brought to bear upon the interests of those, who constitute the strength and the hope of our country: upon the interests of the farmer, the mechanic, the youth, the child. And wherever these measures have been resorted to, to excite and cultivate inquiry, and a taste for reading and knowledge, they have produced all the effects that could be anticipated or desired. Under such circumstances, a complaint, or a regret, has not been known to exist, that books were not read; but the complaints have been frequent, that the wants could not be supplied. And if weekly or stated

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meetings could be established, a regular course of exercises instituted, in which all if possible, should take a part, an opportunity and inducement for the reception, exchange, and reading of books, presented,—a doubt can hardly be entertained, that a taste for reading and a thirst for knowledge, would be general, strong, and lasting.

6thly. *Geological and agricultural surveys.* The immense wealth and power of England, she has taken, in no small degree, from her soil, and her mines. Every mountain, every ledge, and every inch, it may be said, of ground, have been subjacted to a rigid examination, and these researches have been rewarded, by vast and rich treasures, which were buried deep in the bowels of the earth, and treasures still more abundant and vastly more rich, have been found within the depth of the ploughshare. Both the wealth and the science of our own country, have already, by a mere desire for knowledge, and by private enterprise, been greatly increased, by bringing to view the hidden treasures of the earth, and by the touch of the true philosopher's stone, (by industry,) they have been changed into gold. And whether we regard the subject of examination into our resources in the mineral kingdom, in relation to the interests of the farmer, the manufacturer, or the civil engineer, no enlightened mind can doubt its importance or its practical utility; and science urgently solicits its aid, to increase her treasures. If time would permit, it would be easy to convince any candid mind, that researches into the wealth, the power, and the science to be derived from the mineral kingdom, can be effected more minutely, more thoroughly, and more particularly through the agency of Lyceums, than by any other means.

7thly. *Town histories.* The present is a most interesting period of our history, most of those who fought for our independence, and purchased it with the price of their blood, have left this dear bought inheritance in the possession of their children, and have gone to take possession of another and richer inheritance. A few, however, survive; and perhaps it would be difficult to say to which it would afford the purest and most intense delight, to themselves in relating the tale of their wrongs, their battles, and their successes, or to their grand children, and great grand children, in hearing and recording them. But no one can doubt that a few meetings of town Lyceums, held for the purpose of obtaining from those who will soon be unable to communicate them, geographical and historical sketches, would collect facts interesting to hear, and important to be preserved.

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The establishment of a Lyceum in Boston, we are happy to see, is now attracting public attention, in that city. This subject becomes highly important when viewed in connexion with the actual condition and the urgent wants of the branches of the Lyceum, already established Books and apparatus are the things most needed by these associations. A series of plain, cheap, elementary *tracts*, which might very easily be prepared under the sanction of an association established in the metropolis, would doubtless be gladly received by the various branches of the Lyceum. The tracts proposed could be got up by a committee, and published without expense to the association; as their popular character would give them extensive currency, and make them a desirable object to enterprising publishers. A course of familiar treatises on subjects connected with agricultural and mechanical employments, as well as on general science and useful knowledge, is much wanted in country towns and districts. The excellent tracts of the English society for the diffusion of useful knowledge, are not perhaps sufficiently simple and practical for the industrious classes among us. We need something more elementary, and at the same time more select, something more attractive to the majority of readers, something that does not require quite so much study or research. Tracts prepared for the Lyceum would require to be furnished with a list of appropriate experiments, and some directions for performing them, together with hints for the construction of simple apparatus, such as could be executed without the use of costly instruments or foreign materials. An occasional lithographic delineation would also be a useful appendage to the tracts which might be published.

To give efficacy to the measure now proposed, it would be necessary, perhaps, to appoint an *agent* whose duty it should be to correspond with or to visit the branch institutions already so numerous, and to supply them with the tracts mentioned, and at the same time to aid in getting up new branches, where opportunity offered. An association formed in the city of Boston would extend a very efficient aid and support to such an individual; while by the sale of tracts, and perhaps the occasional delivery of a course of suitable lectures, an adequate remuneration might be found for his services, without expense to the association, or even the necessity of interference, in any shape. The advancement of the interests of science or of education, in a free community, ought to be voluntary and self-supported.

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POPULAR EDUCATION.

[The following article is one of the many good results already accruing from the establishment of the Lyceum. This institution seems to us the most effectual and extensive means yet devised for the improvement of popular education as conducted in district schools. But the tenor of the article which precedes this, renders explanation or discussion on this head unnecessary.

We proceed, therefore, to the Address itself, and would lay it before our readers with merely the information that it was delivered at Charlton, on the 7th of May last, before a delegation from the various branches of the Lyceum in the county of Worcester, Massachusetts.

The author, (Mr. Ira Barton,) selected, it will be observed, a subject of general interest and of great moment to the whole community; and that he has treated it in an able and practical manner, our readers, we have no doubt, will be satisfied on a perusal of his discourse.]

Mr. President and Gentlemen,—

Having been designated as the organ for expressing your sentiments on this occasion, I have been ambitious to direct your attention to a subject, which should commend itself, rather to your understanding, than to your fancy; which should rather afford matter for useful reflection, than give scope for originality of remark. I have therefore fixed upon the hackneyed, though certainly not uninteresting, subject of popular education. I may incur the charge of presumption by attempting to canvass a subject, which has already occupied the ablest pens and clearest minds of the age. But, it should be remembered, that although the subject of education in general, has been thus ably examined, yet considered in reference to the peculiar circumstances, wants, and prospects of our own immediate community, it has been comparatively little attended to. With a few honourable exceptions, too, our authors on education have not come down sufficiently to the ordinary business and affairs of life. Although perhaps not conscious of it themselves, theyh ave been too much addicted to theoretical schemes of human perfectibility. They have amused themselves in the airy regions of speculation, while the miserable multitude below

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them, have plodded on, demonstrating at every step, the utter futility of the theories, of these blind leaders of the blind.

It is true, in reference to our own Commonwealth, that something has of late been done by way of detecting and remedying the defects which exist in our present system of popular education. But having conceded thus much, I may with the utmost safety, aver, that, notwithstanding the impress of improvement, that has been given to almost every thing around us, notwithstanding the advantages which wealth and commerce and experience have afforded us, our common and grammar schools, those simple and efficient means of popular instruction, invented by our pious ancestors, remain precisely what they were and as they were almost two hundred years ago. I speak advisedly on this point. My convictions are derived from some experience in the tuition and oversight of these schools, as well as from a careful reference to the history of the progress of common education in this Commonwealth, since its first settlement. And it has frequently filled me with surprise, to reflect, that the early and intrepid tenants of New England, notwithstanding they were oppressed by all the calamities incident to a savage warfare and a poverty of substance, were yet able to bestow on these seminaries of popular education, a degree of patronage, almost equal to that which they now enjoy, amidst all the arts of peace, and all the luxuries of wealth. It is a familiar fact, that the establishment and support of these seminaries, were amongst the first public acts of the colonists. As early as the year 1647, (and perhaps earlier, as many of the colonial statutes are without date,) we find the following interesting provisions:—'To the end that learning, may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers, in Church and Commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavours: It is therefore ordered by this Court and authority thereof; that every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord have increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their towns to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those that order the prudentials of the town shall appoint; provided that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns.'

'Secr. 2. And it is further ordered, that when any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or house-

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holders, they shall set up a Grammar School, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the University.'

These simple but efficient provisions of law for the support of primary, public schools, are interesting, not only as they laid the foundation of the intellectual character of New England, but as they furnished the first example, since the days of the Grecian republics, of institutions for the instruction of youth, established by law, and supported by the public. It was sufficient for one generation to have originated that system of popular instruction. To us it remains, to give to it, its proper finish, and to adapt it in its practical operations, to the wants and circumstances of the present age.

In accomplishing this object, it may be useful to avail ourselves of all the aids of an enlightened philosophy of the human mind. But it will be absolutely necessary to enter the field of practice and experiment. In matters of civil polity, whether in that department which relates to the education or the civil government of a people, correct and practical views have seldom originated in the schools of philosophy. They have more frequently resulted from experiment; or from that strong and clear perception of the fitness of certain means to produce a given end, which is peculiar to practical men. Could the world be philosophized into the adoption of the best systems of civil polity, they would have all been free and enlightened centuries ago. But mere philosophy, is too much like faith without works; dead, inoperative, useless. And, notwithstanding the many fine things that are said and written upon the subject of education, if there are are found none who are willing to give a body to theory, by reducing it to some practical purpose, we shall after all be likely to go on for two hundred years to come, very much as we have done for two hundred years past. But the tendency of the spirit of the present age is manifestly to test theory by practice; truth by argument. This spirit has extended to the department of popular education. A valuable journal, published in this Commonwealth, the American Journal of Education, has done much to excite and direct it. And it is a singular and interesting circumstance, that amongst the means recommended by the editor of that journal, for effecting a reform in our system of popular instruction, he has recently urged with great force, the utility of instituting a board of education similar in its organization and design to that of our own. It is exceedingly obvious, that such a board, combining exper-

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ence in matters of popular education, with an accurate knowledge of the actual situation and wants of our public schools, and an immediate interest in their success, would possess the best means as well as the highest motives for elevating the standard of common education. Indeed it is the people alone, acting by the intervention of such a board, or in some similar manner, who have the power of making our common public schools what they are designed, and what they ought to be. Authors may write about them; but their writings will be dissipated to little better purpose, than the idle songs of the sybil. Legislatures may make laws about them; but their laws will remain a mere blank on the pages of our statute book. Take the whole series of our statutes upon the subject of education, down to the *eloquent* one of 1827, and what do they all amount to more than what is embraced in the simple colonial provision I have already cited, that each town containing a certain number of householders, shall support at the public expense, common and grammar schools. It is here indeed, that the whole business of legislation upon the subject, ends. The law can reach no further. From the nature of the case, the organization and internal policy of those schools, the course of instruction to be pursued in them, and for the most part the selection of instructers, must be matters of mere local regulation, and left to individual sagacity quickened by individual interest. It is in these respects that our common schools need to be reformed. The law providing for their support is well enough, and it were fortunate for the Commonwealth, if legislative visionaries would let it alone. In the law of 1827, after setting about three fourths of it aside, as mere legislative verbiage, I apprehend there is but one defect, and that is owing to a departure from that part of the statute of 1647, which required every town containing one hundred householders to support a high or grammar school. The late statute, for reasons which I am altogether unacquainted with, does not impose this obligation upon any towns except such as contain five hundred householders or families. Thus releasing a large majority of the towns in the Commonwealth from the legal obligation of supporting any schools except primary ones. For reasons which I shall state in the course of my remarks, I apprehend that every town, that is worthy of being incorporated as such, ought to be obliged by law to support a high school, such as is contemplated by the late statute; that is, a school in which 'shall be taught the history of the United States, book-keeping, geometry, surveying, and

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algebra.' As to Latin and Greek grammar schools, in which young men may be fitted for our colleges, the legislature have wisely dispensed with them, except in the large and wealthy towns which embrace a population of more than four thousand. The great number of academies now existing in the commonwealth, seem altogether to supply the want of those schools and to render their existence useless. And besides, the support of them in our common towns, operated too much as a tax upon the poor for the benefit of the rich; whereas it is the true policy of our system of popular education, that it shall operate as a tax upon the rich for the benefit of the poor.

The principal object of these remarks, is to show that the law, providing for popular instruction under this government, is, and always has been, substantially just what it ought to be. And, that if we would improve our system of common education, we must stop legislating upon it, and direct our efforts to remedy the defects which at present exist in the organization and internal polity of our common schools. The radical defect in these schools, no doubt results from a want of competent instructers. This has, for a long time, been a subject of common remark. But it somehow or other, turns out in the affairs of men, that faults and defects the most common and the most talked about, are generally the last to be corrected. At any rate, this has proved to be emphatically true in reference to the besetting evil of half-competent instructers of youth. It is most unfortunately the case, that while the business walks of life are thickening with enterprise, and the best talents of our young men are there put in eager requisition, the very name of a country schoolmaster has become a bye-word, and associated, even in the minds of the youth, with the idea of a pretender in learning. It can be of no use to attempt to conceal this fact. It is quite time, that the evil of which I speak were understood in its full extent and magnitude, and that the proper means were applied for correcting it. If it be asked what these means are, I answer, that like most of the means for correcting evil in the world, they are exceedingly simple and may be embraced in a single word—*pay your instructers*. Pay them for the expense of acquiring an education appropriate for their profession. Pay them for the great labour and high responsibility of instructing youth. Do this, and the best talents of the country will be at your command, and will be exerted in the most advantageous manner, in the education of your children. And I can promise you the attainment of the desired end by no *cheaper* means. It

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is idle to suppose, that individuals, uninfluenced by pecuniary motives, will ever enter upon the arduous and for the most part ungrateful employment of educating youth. The principles of our nature, our social relations, and the very tenure of an earthly existence, all require that in our secular employments, we have a proper reference to pecuniary motives, to our own support and that of our families. And it will in general be found to be true, that in all employments, except those that are purely mechanical, the quantum of mind embarked, will be in proportion to the emolument that stimulates its exertions. I know it may be said that men in their conduct and pursuits should be actuated by higher and purer motives; motives of doing good. All this is true enough. But in making our calculations upon the affairs of men, which is the safer course, to predicate our reasoning upon, what man is, or upon what he ought to be?—The truth I insist on, is a plain but for aught I know an offensive one. But yet it is a truth, tested by common observation, and it is surprising that its force has not been more felt in the great and important business of employing instructers of youth. Men cheerfully pay for every thing that ministers to their pleasure or convenience; why not pay the instructers of their children? Ay they may be obtained at a cheaper rate. Their employment must be made a mere subsidiary one. And as to their qualifications, why the existence of a formidable school committee, with the parson at their head, will furnish a sure and sufficient guarantee. Not thinking, that without the matter of emolument in view, none but dunces will ever submit themselves to this fearful ordeal of talent. So that this admirable contrivance will only insure to them as instructers of their children, the very best of—dunces. I would not speak indiscriminately of the instructers of our common schools. I have said their employment is regarded as a mere subsidiary one. And hence, we occasionally find young gentlemen of high attainments, pursuing it, not as a profession, but merely for a season; for a mere payment of time, which they can fill up with nothing else.

There is another mode proposed for improving the race of instructers of our common schools, which comes recommended by high authority and is certainly well worth attending to. I mean the establishment of a seminary for giving an appropriate education to those instructers. But I am not certain, Mr. President, that this subject has been fully understood. It could avail little to have a seminary of this kind, while the public sentiment

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remains such, that those who received its benefits, would not meet with public patronage. It is true the mere existence of such a seminary in the community, might do much to create a proper public sentiment upon the subject of instruction of youth. And it is in this respect, I apprehend, more than in any other that such a seminary would at present be useful. The instruction which young gentlemen would receive at such a seminary, would fit them, not merely for the business of teaching, but for many other useful and lucrative pursuits—for civil engineering, the counting room, or land surveying. So that unless the public sentiment were somewhat liberalized on the matter of emolument of their instructers, they would after all be exceedingly prone to turn into merchants, land surveyors, civil engineers, &c. and in the matter of instructers, we should be left just where we were. Without such a correction of the public sentiments, we could not rationally expect any other result. Indeed, Mr. President, had you a son educated at one of these seminaries and ready to enter upon the active pursuits of life should you not upbraid him as neglecting the dictates of common prudence, and violating every principle of domestic economy, if, instead of choosing an employment that was permanent, lucrative, and honourable, he should elect that of an instructer of our common schools, when the emolument bears no proportion to the labour, nor the honour to the responsibility of the employment. We are then still brought back to the same difficulty. The public sentiment must be corrected on the subject of paying the instructers of youth. If you inquire how this change is to be effected, I can only answer that it is to be effected by the ordinary means of enlightening men. By the influence of the press; by the influence of liberal individuals; and especially by the concentrated influence of associations of gentlemen, who, knowing from actual observation, the defects in our system of popular instruction, will best understand the means of remedying those defects.

But there are other faults in our system of popular instruction, aside from that which I have been considering. I have spoken of that of incompetent instructers, more particularly as I regard it as the foundation of all the rest. But even with the best of instructers, there is one fault in the present organization of our schools, which would prevent them from attaining that elevated rank which they ought, in a community like ours, to hold. *It is a want of a proper gradation in those schools.* The growing demands and wants of the community have manifested themselves

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in a striking manner, in the introduction of a great variety of branches into our common schools, which formerly were never thought of. It is not unusual to find going on in our common schools, instruction beginning with the very elements of reading and orthography, then writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, rhetoric, and even logic; and all this instruction is to be afforded by a single teacher, and perhaps to some seventy five or a hundred scholars. It is obvious on a moment's reflection, that we are not to expect much good from one of these little intellectual Babels. And it is surprising, that while the principle of a division of labour has been applied with such signal success to almost every human employment, it has not been more attended to in the business of instructing our common schools. The application of this principle could be conveniently made, by merely dividing our common schools into a female and male department. At a trifling additional expense our school houses might be fitted up with two apartments, in one of which should be received all the pupils of a given age or of given acquirements, to be under the instruction of a female; while the other should constitute a kind of high school under the tuition of an instructer. I am persuaded that such an arrangement, would greatly facilitate the progress of the pupils, and operate as a saving of time and money. Indeed I know of no so palpable a violation of every principle of economy, as the employment of males at the expense of twenty or twenty five dollars a month, to teach children the very elements of a common school education, while all this might be done infinitely better by a female, at one fourth of the expense. Such a division of labour in our common schools, would not only facilitate the operations of teaching, and effect an actual saving of money, but would hold out to the minds of the children *a definite object of attainment*—their advancement from one school or department to a higher one. This, if I mistake not, would go farther to excite a proper emulation amongst the pupils, than all the petty arts that can be exerted on them, while they are crowded promiscuously together, into one common school. I can foresee, however, that there would be some difficulties in effecting such an organization of our common schools, in districts where the population is small and scattered. But in our large village schools, it might be effected with the utmost facility. And so much as this may be done in all our schools, even under the present organization, that mere infants shall be kept in the nursery, or put only to our female summer schools, and never be

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allowed to embarrass the operations of our winter schools, till they shall have acquired at least the rudiments of reading and orthography.

The reasons suggested in favour of a gradation of our common schools, and a division of labour in the instruction of them, apply with equal force, in favour of the establishment of high schools. I have already alluded to the statute making provision for the schools. The words of it are, that 'every city, town, or district, containing *five hundred* householders or families, shall be provided with a master of good morals, competent to instruct in the history of the United States, book-keeping by single entry, geometry, surveying, and algebra; and shall employ such master to instruct a school in such city, town, or district for the benefit of all the inhabitants thereof, at least ten months in each year, exclusive of vacations in such convenient place, or alternately at such places in such city, town, or district, as the inhabitants, at their meeting in March or April annually, shall determine.' These schools were intended as a substitute for the old Latin and Greek grammar schools, and no one can regret the change. To say nothing of the great utility of the branches taught in these schools, the influence they exert upon the common schools furnishes a sufficient reason for their support in every town. As things are at present situated in most of our towns, the pupil enters our common schools with nothing before him but the dull routine of mere common school education. He soon becomes fatigued and disgusted. There is nothing to excite him to exertion. Place in prospect before him a school of a higher order, an admission to which will require definite attainment; and here is a motive to exertion which cannot fail to operate on him. It will address itself to the most powerful principles of human nature; pride, love of distinction, emulation, and, above all, novelty, that magic principle which seems to prevent the whole world from becoming stagnant. It was for these reasons, that I remarked that every town, whether containing five hundred families or not, ought to support one of these high schools. A liberal, which is always the true, economy, would dictate this measure. That is, the same sum of money, appropriated in this way, would do more for the promotion of good common education, than it would, appropriated in any other way. In the healthy and pleasant towns of New England, where board and the means of living may be obtained at a reasonable rate, instructers for such schools, duly qualified, might no doubt be obtained for a

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salary of three or four hundred dollars per annum. And if this should be regarded as too heavy a tax for a single town, I apprehend a school of this description, for six months in the year, would effect the object of it in a great measure. And in this way, an instructer might have charge of the high schools in two towns, leaving to each the certainly very inconsiderable burthen of one half the expense of supporting one instructer. A great advantage resulting from such an encouragement would be, to give permanent employment to an instructer—a consideration, which, next to that of emolument, will enable us to command the best talents in the instruction of our youth.

These remarks, Mr. President, on the subject of a gradation in our common public schools, are submitted with much diffidence, not with an expectation nor even wish that any sudden or radical change should take place in their organization, but that the attention of this board, as well as that of intelligent individuals, should be directed to a subject, which all will acknowledge is fraught with deep interest to this community. Our population is rapidly increasing. Large and populous villages are springing up in our once literally desert places. And unless the means of intellectual as well as animal culture, keep pace with the rapid strides of our population, we may be wealthy and powerful; but the true glory of New England will have departed from us.

I apprehend that I should do injustice to the sentiments of this board, and certainly to my own individual sentiments, were I, in speaking upon the subject of popular education, to pass unnoticed an humble but beautiful branch of it, embraced in our system of Sabbath schools. As an officer of our courts of justice, it would argue no small degree of prejudice or stupidity not to notice and acknowledge the grateful influence they exert in suppressing the crimes and retaining the order of society. They furnish a striking illustration of the fact, that, in the moral and intellectual world, effects bear no proportion to the simplicity or magnificence of the causes that produce them. It is unquestionably true, that the simple means of Sabbath school instruction prevents the commission of ten crimes to where the law, with all its array of terrors, punishes one. Innumerable facts might be adduced in proof of this assertion. But I will only appeal to the common observation of every candid mind. Considered, then, merely in reference to the common and ordinary interests of society, its order, peace, and security, these schools, under a judicious management, are certainly entitled

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enance and support of all who have lives to be pro-
:operty to be secured. I do not speak of their
on men as religious beings. I will merely say, that
's of nature be so changed, that the good seed will
beauty and strength by the way side, in the stony
amidst thorns, it is important that the minds of chil-
pared, by a proper culture, for the reception of
:h. It was the influence of these schools upon the
haracter of a community, that I proposed more
o notice. And here I will not say that the instruc-
l in these schools is merely calculated to improve
or any other particular faculty of the mind, but
faculties of the mind, derive from the cultivation of
l and religious sentiment, that health and strength
which preserve them for successful effort. I know,
ere are many, who entertain a vague notion that
on of moral and religious sentiment has no con-
intellectual excellence. And currency is given to
examples of high intellectual attainments, accom-
deep and dark moral depravity. But if such an
did exist, it is an unnatural one. And it is equally
and illogical to draw a general conclusion from
amples, which are perhaps themselves exceptions
and established law of mind. And besides, if exam-
kind supposed have existed, they have been rare,
e importance has been attached to them, on account
lar propensity in men to notice and admire striking
in character. It was a truth once acknowledged,
t man must be a good one. And it is a striking co-
the history of the opinions of men, that this plain
ruth inculcated by heathen philosophers two thou-
go, should have been recognized, and, for the first
ed in its practical application to civil communities
the pious and intrepid founders of New England.
vas left to them to institute the sublime experiment,
progress is to illustrate the interesting fact, that the
intellectual excellence in a people can be attained
rity and perfection of moral and religious sentiment.
riment that must require ages for its full develop-
who presides over it, heeds not the little days and
years with which we span out the lapse of time.
ernity wherein to exemplify his law, and to execute
, in relation to his moral and intelligent universe.

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FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

[In the number preceding our last, an account of this institution was commenced, and carried as far as the 'course of study.' The many just and practical observations interspersed with the following explanation of that course are, we think, highly important and interesting, in relation to the whole business of instruction. We consider these remarks as a valuable contribution of light on the subjects of preparatory discipline and practical schools of the higher order.]

The *course of study*, given in a preceding number, is not offered as a *complete* exemplification of *practical* and *liberal* education united. The combination might, however, be easily extended to the courses pursued at our colleges and universites. No good reason can be assigned why the higher branches of mathematics, logic, ethics, or metaphysics, should not be pursued simultaneously with those sciences and arts, which pertain to the active duties of life.

By referring to the course already delineated, the reader will perceive that it consists of four important classes of studies, each of which has generally been confined to a separate school. The first class includes *English* branches; the second, *classical* studies; the third, *modern languages*, and the fourth, *mathematics* and the *practical sciences*.

Whatever be the destination of the student, whether for active life, or for a literary and professional career; whether he shall finish his studies in this institution, or be removed to a university, the importance of his *English* course will, under every contingency, remain the same. A correct elocution, a degree of facility both in oral and written composition, a knowledge of the great outlines of ancient and modern history, some acquaintance with the principles of domestic and political economy, and a clear understanding of the provisions of those constitutions of government under which we live: all these, in addition to the more common branches of English education, ought to be acquired by every youth who aims at success and usefulness in his future pursuits.

Those whose views extend to a more enlarged course of study, will, in addition to the *usual* preparation for college, find themselves *actually prepared* for a collegiate education, by having acquired the *elements* of most of those branches which they are

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subsequently to pursue. *Preparation for college* often consists in a meagre, or merely passable, knowledge of Greek and Latin, a little geography, less arithmetic, and scarcely any other attainment. Both precept and example have concurred to inspire a great contempt in the minds of students, while at school, for every other species of knowledge. It is unnecessary to point out the numerous impediments, which a scholar thus slenderly furnished, must encounter in the prosecution of an extended course of liberal education. If the institution to which he is admitted, deserve the name of *college* or *university*, it will immediately demand of him the use of powers and attainments with which he is not provided; and thus the business of his school remains to be prosecuted at the university, which, consequently, is reduced to the rank and condition of a mere grammar school. This degradation of our higher institutions, in consequence of the defects of our classical schools, has, among other causes, tended to bring the honours, bestowed by the former, into contempt. Men who have received degrees at the *real* universities of Europe, deride the idea of *being re-doctorated* at imaginary ones in America.

Those who understood its nature and influence, have seldom objected to a *classical* course, on any other ground than that of the vast expense of time and money which it involved, and the exclusion of other useful objects, which, on the old system of teaching, it necessarily implied. On the High School system, both these grounds of objection are removed. The expense, to those who study ancient languages, is no greater than to those who limit themselves to English branches; and by fixing a time for every thing, and causing every thing to *be done in its time*, no exclusion of useful objects is required. The scholar who is destined to be a man of business, is enabled to acquire all the classical learning which is necessary to a comprehension of the derivations and construction of his own language. The allusions to ancient customs and manners, which abound through our English literature, will, likewise, be sufficiently obvious to his understanding; and a taste for correct and chastened style in thought and expression, will have been acquired. This amount of influence from classical learning, is desirable for every citizen in an enlightened and civilized community.

The course of *modern languages*, is of equal importance whether we regard it as a part of a *practical*, or of a *liberal*, education. In all our commercial cities, the man who cannot use the French language, will find his sphere of profitable

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operations essentially limited; and the vast number of persons, inhabiting every part of our country, to whom this language is *vernacular*, will furnish innumerable opportunities of profiting by a familiar acquaintance with this universal medium of international communication.

The obvious utility of the Spanish, in facilitating every sort of intercourse with the southern parts of our continent, renders any discussion of its merits unnecessary.

In some parts of our country, the *German* is even more necessary, for success in business, than either of the two languages above mentioned; thousands of our citizens speak no other: of these many who possess a partial knowledge of the English, still, naturally, give a decided preference to their own strong and expressive dialect.

If we regard the study of these several languages merely as part of a liberal education, their value is in no degree diminished. The treasures of literature which they unlock, are as valuable and delightful as those unfolded by any language of antiquity. Nor can we excuse our ignorance of these tongues, by alleging that all the taste and beauty of foreign authors, have, through the medium of translations and imitations, been transfused into our own literature. Every competent judge of the matter, knows the allegation to be unfounded. It is surprising, that, at many of our colleges, these languages are rather tolerated than encouraged. When those institutions shall have completely divested themselves of a monastic character, we may hope to find modern languages among the essential requisites for graduation.

But whatever merit may be claimed for the three divisions of our course already enumerated, the *fourth* is not less important, less practical, or less adapted to the age of the pupils for whom it is intended, than either of the former. The several branches of mathematics, practical mechanics, natural philosophy, elementary chemistry, the philosophy of natural history, with drawing and perspective, all appeal, more or less directly, to the *senses*, and consequently excite the interest of youth more forcibly than subjects in which laws and relations are to be comprehended only by means of abstract and general expressions. Experience justifies this inference respecting their adaptation to the capacities of early youth.

Scarcely one of the numerous branches of industry in which our citizens now engage, can be successfully prosecuted for a single day, without involving the use of some of these depart-

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ments of practical science. Hence their utility is unquestionable. And every professor in our colleges, must doubtless have felt that the advantages to his hearers, and the pleasure to himself, would both be greatly enhanced, if the former could bring to his lectures some just and accurate elementary ideas, on the subject about which he was to address them. What has been said above, respecting the inconveniences occasioned to higher institutions by the want of proper acquaintance with English studies, applies with equal force to these sciences. Our colleges are degraded, because their professors are compelled to dwell perpetually upon the elements of their respective subjects.

In arranging this *course*, it was a primary object to produce an easy and natural transition from one branch to another, in each of the great departments; to introduce nothing as a merely ornamental accomplishment; and to cause the student to behold his interest blended with his duty. It is not predicated upon the maxim which has sometimes been broadly proclaimed—that one branch of study is as good as another, provided it *cost the* scholar the same kind and amount of toil, to perform what is required by his teacher. It is founded upon the belief, that with respect to intellectual education, that is the best, which, with the greatest number of theoretical and practical truths, furnishes the highest improvement of the faculties, and affords the most enduring mental pleasures.

No ordinary share of talents and industry must be possessed by the scholar who would, within the time allotted, accomplish all that is contained in the course above described. Still, however, those who are accustomed only to that sort of application, which dreams away time, or pores with excess of disgust over one or two tedious volumes, can scarcely imagine *the result* of a system which by varying the occupations, multiplies the energies of the mind, and by rivetting the attention to its immediate object, makes permanent acquisition at every step.

The chemist knows, that when water is saturated with one salt, it will still dissolve a large portion of another of a different kind; and when saturated with this also, a third may be added without *precipitating* either of the former. The youthful mind has similar affinities for *varied* pursuits, and analogous points of saturation. Much of the profitless labour of teachers consists in attempts to super-saturate it, with some *one* ingredient, to the exclusion of others which it would eagerly receive.

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INTELLIGENCE.

CONDITION OF COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following table, compiled from such records as are contained in our files, will show the number of graduates, from our oldest and most flourishing Colleges, for the last six years.

Colleges.	Gr. 1823.	Gr. 1824.	Gr. 1825.	Gr. 1826.	Gr. 1827.	Gr. 1828.
Waterville College	3	3	4	7	14	12
Bowdoin College	31	13	37	31	32	20
Dartmouth College	34	28	26	37	35	41
Vermont University	8	9	13	13	14	4
Middlebury College	17	24	16	19	15	18
Williams College	1	15	19	24	31	18
Amherst College	3	17	23	32	23	40
Harvard College	37	67	58	53	47	52
Brown University	27	41	48	27	33	27
Yale College	73	68	68	100	79	82
Union College	67	79	62	71	68	79
Hamilton College	34	17	23	28	23	14
Columbia College	29	22	21	24	34	29
Princeton College	36	47	38	29	28	25
Dickinson College	19	24	19	14	22	20
University of Pennsylvania	23	14	14	8	15	11
Washington College, Hartford					10	13
Geneva College					3	3
Rutgers College					5	20
Hampden-Sydney College				13	9	9
University of Georgia					30	24
Total.	448	448	485	530	590	587

Some of the last named Colleges have been in operation but a short time. This is the case with Washington, Rutgers, and Geneva Colleges. The number of Graduates from the three last in the above list, for the years 1823, 4, 5, and 6, is unknown. The whole number from these 22 Institutions, the present year, it will be seen is 587; and the whole *known* number from the same, during the last six years, is 3126. There are in all about fifty colleges in the United States.

Alleghany College.—Serious embarrassments have been felt at this institution in consequence of unexpected delays in the erection of buildings. These embarrassments are likely soon to be removed by the completion of a large and commodious edifice. The Library contains a collection of choice and valuable books. The undergraduates put down in the Table, are styled, Probationers, and become entitled to a degree when they have gone through the prescribed course of study.

Western University.—'Judge Wilkins, President of the Board of Trustees, Dr. R. Bruce, Principal.' A new building is about to be erected, and a philosophical apparatus and library to be purchased.

William and Mary College.—Few of those who have completed their education have received a regular diploma, owing to peculiar circumstances.

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The college has suffered a long depression, but is now rising, and its prospects are flattering. Of the 106 students put down in the table 54 are said to be in 'the classical' and 52 in 'the scientific' department. The number in the latter department has, in little more than a year, increased fourfold.

University of Alabama.—On Saturday, the 22d of March, the Trustees of the University of Alabama selected as a site, whereon to erect the buildings of this institution, the place known as Mair's Spring, situated on the main road leading in a direction towards Huntsville, and distant from the town of Tuscaloosa, one mile and a half. The site selected is a part of the land originally granted by Congress to the institution, and is eligible on several accounts. The site is high and healthy, with several constant springs of pure freestone water, and a sufficiency of forest land to furnish a supply of fuel for the accommodation of generations yet unborn; or, if deemed preferable, rich mines of stone coal are to be found in its vicinity. Another important advantage in favour of the selection is, that it is in the immediate neighborhood of the quarry, from which most of the beautiful stone used in building the basement stories of the State Capitol and Bank, has been obtained.

The Trustees of the University, from, from the liberality and energy with which they have adopted the preliminary arrangements for carrying the institution into effect, have reflected credit on themselves, and deserve the thanks of the community; and their high character for intelligence augurs well for its further success.—*Richmond Visitor.*

INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG LADIES.

Mr. and Mrs. Bonfils have removed their establishment from Washington city to Boston, and have taken that very eligible and pleasant situation at the corner of Mount Vernon and Belknap streets, where the school will open on the second Monday of November next.

The following are the principal objects of Mr. and Mrs. Bonfils' system of education.

I. The development of the intellectual and moral faculties of their pupils.

II. To unite the French language, in its various branches of literature and classics, with a finished English education.

III. The Italian, Spanish and Latin languages, and Mathematics, to be taught on the same plan as that adopted in the best academies in Europe; and, whenever the classes are prepared, a Course of Lectures on Chemistry, Botany, and Astronomy, to be given by competent Professors.

With regard to the mode of teaching the branches, it is entirely founded on reasoning principles; Mr. and Mrs. B. acknowledging no other guides in their academical operations than reason and experience.

Mr. and Mrs. Bonfils have the experience of nine years teaching; and as to the merits of their system of education, they refer to their numerous and distinguished patrons, both among Americans and foreigners; but especially to the following, whose daughters they have had the pleasure to educate.

Hon. James Barbour—Gen. S. Bernard—Mons. Durand St. Andre, Consul General de France.

Mr. and Mrs. B. have also the honor to refer to

Hon. Daniel Webster—Hon. Edward Everett—Rev. Mr. Wisner—and Rev. Mr. Greenwood.

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COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

English Department.

Fourth Class. English studies—Grammar, Penmanship, Arithmetic, Geography, with maps and Globes, History of the United States, and Scripture.

Third Class. Grammar, Arithmetic, Worcester's Ancient and Modern Geography, Globes, Compend of History, Abridgement of Blair's Rhetoric, Irving's Elements of Composition, and Scripture.

Second Class. Parsing Poetry, the higher branches of Arithmetic, Natural Philosophy, Continuation of Ancient and Modern Geography, with the globes, Astronomy, History and Historical Lectures, Crabbe's Synonymes, Mythology, Logic, Composition, and Scripture.

First Class. Rollin's Ancient History, Campbell's Philosophy of Rhetoric, Condillac's Logic, Beattie on Truth, Paley's Moral Philosophy and Evidences of Christianity, Continuation of Natural Philosophy, Mathematics, Composition, Greek and Roman Antiquities.

French Department.

Quatrieme Classe. Etudes Francaises—Syllabaire-Francais, Dialogues de Perrin, et Recueil Choisi.

Troisieme Classe. Grammaire de Wanostraught, Definitions, Conversations, Analyse, Themes, Lectures et Traductions de Telemaque.

Seconde Classe. Cacographie, Synonymes, Grammaire de Levizac, Geographie de Tellier, Dictee, Compostion, Traduction de l'Anglais en Francais, Histoire Universelle, et Henriade.

Premiere Classe. Grammaire de Tellier, Analyse, Versification, Composition, Synonymes de Girard, Mythologie, Traduction de Watts sur l'Esprit, et de quelques Lecons sur la Verite, Logique de Condillac, Henriade, Racine et Anacharsis.

It will readily be perceived, from the above course of instruction, that no branch is taught in English, which is not in French: thus, the pupils will acquire the colloquial part of that language, whilst they perfect themselves in those branches which they have previously attended to in English. It is also thought proper to observe, that the French is the language of the family and the school, and that it is taught daily.

☞ Drawing, Music, and Dancing, (which are left at the option of the parents,) are taught by the most approved masters,

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THE LATE DANIEL H. BARNES, OF THE NEW-YORK HIGH SCHOOL.

[By the death of this respected and useful instructer, the cause of education has lost the aid of a warm and able friend. Few things, we conceive, would prove more serviceable or acceptable to teachers than an account of his life, and its various intellectual employments—particularly his methods of instruction. In the absence of such a publication we transcribe the following notice.]

The following passage, relative to the character of the late Daniel H. Barnes as a naturalist and as an instructer, is from Mr. Verplanck's annual report on the High School, now in press. In the original, it immediately follows an interesting and somewhat minute view of Mr. Barnes's attainments as a naturalist, and of his contributions to natural science, furnished by a member of the New York Lyceum of Natural History.

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'In addition to this just and discriminating character, I have only to add, that he never regarded these acquisitions, or indeed any other not immediately entering into the uses of life, as of ultimate value in themselves. He cherished and cultivated the study of Nature as furnishing truer conceptions of the Creator's wisdom, as giving employment to the understanding and habits of accurate and attentive observation, and as frequently and often unexpectedly leading to results increasing the power or the happiness of man. With these views of the objects of the science, whilst in his more elaborate printed essays he addressed the scientific naturalist, he was wont, in occasional popular lectures to his pupils, to unfold to them the infinite beauty, the diversified simplicity of the order of Nature. To borrow the eloquent language of an accomplished scholar, (Stephen Elliott, President of the Bank of South Carolina, in his address to the Lit. and Phil. Soc.) who, amidst the laborious occupations of a busy life, has found leisure to become the first naturalist of our country; he taught them how by the light of science 'the very earth on which we tread becomes animate—every rock, every plant, every insect presents to our view an organization so wonderful, so varied, so complex; an adaptation of means to ends so simple, so diversified, so extensive, so perfect, that the wisdom of man shrinks at the comparison. Nor is it to present existence, that our observations are confined. The mind may thus be enabled to retrieve the march of ages—to examine of the earth the revolutions that have formed and deranged its structure—of its inhabitants, the creation, the dissolution, the continual reproduction—to admire that harmony, which, while it has taught each being instinctively to pursue the primary objects of its creation, has rendered them all subservient to secondary purposes.'

'In his own profession as a teacher of youth, Mr. Barnes had long enjoyed a merited reputation. Able and willing to teach, and to teach well, all those branches of knowledge which the wants and opinions of society require as essential for the pursuits of active life, he did not consider the mere drilling of his pupils in those studies as sufficient discharge of his duty. He felt a warm and parental interest in them, and delighted to throw before them such collateral information as might stimulate their curiosity, or without the labour of formal study, enrich their minds with such hints and outlines of science as might in after life be filled up and completed.

'He was accordingly peculiarly well adapted to the institution over which he presided.* It was our hope in founding these schools, that whilst the learned languages would be well taught, accurate instruction might also be given in all those practical parts of education which fit men for the daily business of life. The experiment has been satisfactory, and whilst the pupils of Mr. Barnes who have entered the several colleges, have not fallen behind in any important part of classical learning, there have gone forth every year from this school a number of other youth with minds habituated to well directed and profitable application, and liberalized and invigorated by various and valuable knowledge. Nor were the peculiar obligations of the minister of a holy religion forgotten by him, in those of the teacher of human learning. He omitted none of those opportunities which the course of discipline and instruction constantly presented, to impress on those under his care, notions of sound morals, to correct those of false honour and pride, to awaken rational piety, or to quicken those moral sensibilities, which, though they may be dormant in youth, are rarely dead.'—*Eve. Post.*

* The High School of New York, of which he was associate principal with Dr. Griscom.

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BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.

[After many failures, we have at last succeeded in obtaining the annual Reports and several other publications* of this excellent institution, from its commencement to the present year, inclusive. From these and what may in future be forwarded to us, we shall occasionally present a sketch of the Society's proceedings, and endeavour to keep our readers informed of the progress of its various and extensive measures for the diffusion of universal education.]

The object of this society is to promote the education of the children of all the poor, of every class, sect, and country, in moral and religious principles, as the surest means of diminishing crime and misery, and producing general peace and happiness. The system which it acts upon, while eminently calculated to fix in the infant mind the fundamental principles of the Christian religion, does not interfere with the particular opinions or creed of any, being in conformity with that Divine precept, 'Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them.'

The common means of instruction being far too expensive to be adopted for the education of the poor upon a great scale, Mr. Joseph Lancaster, about the year 1798, devised a method by which a school, however large, might be managed by one master, and one set of lessons, thus diminishing the expense for each individual child to a mere trifle; while at the same time the plan communicated instruction with astonishing celerity. In the year 1805, our late venerable sovereign honoured Mr. Joseph Lancaster with a private audience, fully informed himself of the nature of the system, and saw its important bearing on the whole mass of the poor population. It was on this occasion, that the king uttered those memorable words, which will do honour to the name of George the Third to the latest posterity:—'It is my wish that every poor child in my kingdom may be taught to read the Bible.' From that period his majesty not only gave to the British system his royal sanction and patronage, but subscribed one hundred pounds per annum towards its support and propagation. This liberal subscription has been regularly continued by his present majesty. The value of the British system of mutual instruction becoming gradually more and more known, schools were established in most of the principal towns of the kingdom, many of which were organized by masters trained and sent by the committee of the parent society in the Borough Road: the accounts of the schools upon this plan, which have been published, from time to time, in the reports of the society, present many interesting particulars of their prosperity, and especially of the extensive moral effects produced by their establishment. In the manufacturing districts, where, from the demand for juvenile labour, the children are soon taken into close employment the system has proved itself preeminently useful, from the rapidity with which it conveys instruction.

This institution, though in no manner connected with the British and Foreign Bible Society, has powerfully cooperated in its designs, and acts upon the same liberal principles: while on one hand, by the exertions of the Bible Society in their endeavours to introduce the Holy Scriptures into every house and cottage, the deplorable want of education was discovered, the School Society on the other hand became the ready coadjutors of the Bible Society, by providing the means of instruction, without which the gift of Bibles would have been of little avail. It is a fundamental principle of the British system, that nothing should be taught which can in any way tend to prevent conscientious and pious parents, of any religious denomination, from sending their children for instruction; the Bible, in the authorized version, without note or comment, being the only religious book taught in the schools.—*Brief Account of the Society.*

* Forwarded by D. D. Scott, Esq. Secretary to the Society—through the attention of Mr. Kennett of Lincoln's Inn Fields.

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NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

An Inaugural Address, delivered before the Trustees, Faculty, and Students, in the College Chapel, on Wednesday, September 17th, 1828. By the Rev. William H. Delancey, D. D. Provost of the University of Pennsylvania. Published at the request of the Board of Trustees. Philadelphia. Carey, Lea, and Carey. 1828. 12mo. pp. 31.

The leading topics of this address are 'a sketch of the benefits of a collegiate education; a brief development of the system of instruction and discipline, adopted in the university; and the exhibition of some of those claims which it is conceived that an institution *located* in this city,' (Philadelphia,) 'has upon the fostering encouragement of the public.' On all of these heads the tenor of the address is interesting, and, at the same time, strictly practical.

We regret our inability to enter on the merits of this production in detail; and we select the following passage, rather from the interesting nature of the subject on which it touches, than from any expectation of presenting a fair specimen of the address itself.

'It,' (a city university,) 'furnishes an opportunity of educating your sons with the least possible expense. It presents the advantage of connecting your own superintendence of their morals with the attainment of a full collegiate education. It affords to you a frequent opportunity of witnessing and judging of their progress. It supplies to them the benefit, and to you the satisfaction, of a constant mutual instruction. * * * In short, it leaves them, in regard to morals, health, intellect, and accomplishments, under the watchful inspection of that eye, which, of all others, looks with the deepest interest, and most untiring devotion to their temporal and eternal welfare.'

Epitome Historiæ Græcæ, cum Appendice de Diis et Heroibus Poeticis. Accedit Dictionarium Latino Anglicum. Editio Secunda Americana, priore longè emendatior. New-Haven. A. H. Maltby. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins. Philadelphia. John Grigg. 1828. 18mo. pp. 280.

We are glad to see a new and improved edition of this excellent school book. It is a work finely suited to the capacity and the progress of beginners in Latin, or of pupils who have just finished the Epitome Historiæ Sacræ. Books such as this seem to us to possess a peculiar value, which is often overlooked. What is needed by a boy beginning to construe, is not a book of fables, or of dialogues, or a succession of didactic sentences. The last mentioned sort of such lessons have too little interest to the young mind, to render them impressive to the memory; and fluent and familiar as the style may be in the former two classes of pieces, it is of necessity, (from its conversational turns and phrases,) too *idiomatic* for young pupils. A judicious course of initiation would place before the learner, for his first exercises, language as simple as possible in its construction, and would introduce idioms very sparingly at first—offering difficulties no faster than they could be well mastered.

On this account, and after repeated trial of mixed selections, such as the Liber Primus and the Latin Reader, we are, for our own part, fully convinced, that the American press has thus far offered no books so useful to young beginners as the reprint of the epitome of sacred history by L'Homond, and the

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volume now before us, both of which are remarkably simple, and very gradually progressive in style. The Latin version of Robinson Crusoe, we may observe in passing, though a very interesting story, is, we think, rendered unnecessarily hard, by its very frequent introduction of idioms. Phædrus, so generally used at the same stage of a pupil's progress, is still more objectionable.

Besides many other advantages, the little work under notice possesses the very attractive one of furnishing its readers with a very clear and correct, though a brief, view of Grecian history. We are happy to observe that this book is already in extensive use, in several of the most eminent of our classical schools. We would warmly recommend it to all teachers who have not examined it, as a class book of which experience in the school room will daily enhance their estimation.

Rules of Pronunciation in Reading Latin. New-Haven. A. H. Maltby. 1828. 18mo. pp. 7.

For the moderate cost of a very few cents instructers are here furnished with the most satisfactory direction and assistance on a subject of great practical importance, and still too much neglected in many classical seminaries. The rules are few, are clearly stated, and fully illustrated, inculcating the modern style of pronouncing, without the addition of peculiarities or affectation. This little manual, besides being highly useful to pupils, will be of great service to those teachers whose own instruction may have been imperfect in respect of orthoepy.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

The Mirror, or Eighteen Juvenile Tales and Dialogues. By a Lady of Philadelphia. With Engravings. Boston. Munroe and Francis, and Charles F. Francis, New-York. 1828. 18mo. pp. 288.

The Pearl, or Affection's Gift; a Christmas and New Year's Present. Philadelphia. Thomas T. Ash. Boston. Munroe and Francis. 1829. 18mo. pp. 252.

The Casket, a Christmas and New Year's Present for Chidren and Young Persons. 1829. Boston. Bowles and Dearborn. 18mo. pp. 267.

The juvenile department of annual publications, is to be still further enlarged, we understand, by one or more volumes in addition to the above. The variety thus furnished, will afford room for selection, according to the various tastes of purchasers. It may not be unacceptable to those of our readers who have not compared these publications, to be aided by a few words of information respecting the character of each; and this is all which our present very limited allowance of space will admit.

The Mirror is apparently intended for very young children, and its contents may be generally characterised as simple and agreeable, though not addressed to the higher powers of the mind. The wood cuts illustrative of the stories, are generally neat; and some are unusually accurate and expressive.

The Pearl is more various in its character; and several of the pieces contained in it, possesses a fair degree of merit. The illustrations are on copper, and are in general executed with a good deal of taste, though some of the figures lack the air of freedom and life, which perhaps will be expected in the plates of a volume belonging to the ornamental class of publications.

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The engravings of the Casket are, with one or two exceptions, very good. The 'Portrait' may be mentioned, in particular, as a specimen of what engravings should be, in works of this description. It possesses the accuracy, the relief, the distinctness, the indescribable air of reality, which we seldom find in the engravings of books for children. But we hasten to the intellectual and literary merits of the volume: these are of an order unusually high. There is an originality of conception, and a benign tenderness of manner in the version of the story of Undine, particularly, which are equally delightful and peculiar. The moral tendency of expression has, in no one case that we know of, been so happily and judiciously consulted, and the influence exerted on the intellect of the reader, is not less striking or successful. The religious impressions left by a perusal of this piece, are akin to those produced by the most softening and tranquillizing scenes of nature. We hope to meet the author again and again in the useful field of labour to which this work belongs.

Godfrey Hall, or Prudence and Principle; a Tale. By the Author of 'Rachel,' and the 'Authoress.' Boston. Munroe and Francis, and C. S. Francis, New-York. 18mo. pp. 174.

This is a tale of uncommon interest, and adapted to a class of readers too seldom provided for in the compiling of books for the young. We allude to readers who do not expect to draw their mental food from the stores of the juvenile library, and yet do not relish much of the reading usually prescribed for grown people.

The comparative worth of 'prudence' and of 'principle' is strikingly contrasted in a series of natural incidents very impressive to the heart; and the story has perhaps no fault but that of an improbable degree and kind of 'prudence,' in one of the young characters of the piece.

The Beatitudes. Boston. Bowles and Dearborn. 1828. 18mo. pp. 144.

This is a very instructive little volume; and it is at the same time not devoid of entertainment. It explains, with the help of a few well chosen illustrations, the 'sermon on the mount;' and renders it in a good degree intelligible and interesting to children.

The author of this book seems to be well qualified to furnish a course of familiar and useful instruction in explanation of the language of the New Testament—an aid very much needed by young persons.

Stories from Roman History. By a Lady. Boston. Munroe and Francis, and C. S. Francis, New-York. 18mo. pp. 131.

These stories suit, in some measure, the purpose of a juvenile history of Rome, and are, on the whole, well told; though there is room, we think, for the remark that the volume would have been more intelligible and more useful, if furnished with fuller and more frequent explanations from the department of antiquities—such, we mean, as are exemplified in that admirable little work, Manners of the Romans. We wonder why this latter publication has not been reissued from the press, with engravings illustrative of the details of costume, architecture, &c.

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COMMON EDUCATION.

INFLUENCE OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS.

[From a Discourse by Alva Woods, D. D. delivered at his Inauguration as President of Transylvania University.]

Man's connexion with those around him lays the foundation for a large portion of his present duties.

Is he a parent? The education of his children, however young, is already commenced. Even before they acquire their vernacular tongue, they are forming the dispositions and habits, which will give complexion to their manhood and their old age. They are taking lessons of every body and of every thing around them. To their parents especially they look up for guidance and teaching. Can an ignorant person open, by the wisest and gentlest means, these budding faculties, and fashion with plastic hand these forming manners? Can he, whose own powers have never been developed, be qualified to develope and mature the powers of others? Can he, who has never governed his own spirit, nor chastened his own fancy, nor bridled his own desires, give lessons of moderation, of prudence, and of judgment?

Is he an avowed teacher of youth? He has taken upon him duties of high and solemn import. He has undertaken to mould the character of the next generation. He aims at nothing less than to form the parents, the citizens, the teachers, the philosophers, the patriots, and the Christians of the coming age. To this formation of character, every teacher, from the nursery to the hall of science, contributes a portion of influence.

From the salutary changes introduced within a few years in the modes of teaching, and the experiments now making with a view to other changes, it is evident the whole science of education is yet in its infancy. In literature, as in religion, veneration for the mere office of teacher is gone, and in its place is

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come up a demand for talents, and zeal, and usefulness. Neither youth nor men are any longer to be governed by the mere dust of authority. Public opinion is the lever which moves the world; and governments, whether of schools, or colleges, or states, must yield to its irresistible power.

The general inquiry now is, how can education be made to subserve most effectually our great social, political, and moral interests? What are the best means for training the mind and forming the manners? What are the best schools, not merely for acquiring knowledge, but for increasing mental power, and obtaining mental discipline? for teaching youth to think, and to reason, and to act? What, in short, is the education, which ought to be given to American citizens and American Christians in the enlightened nineteenth century? On this point the sentiment is becoming general that sound learning has not received that individual and that legislative patronage which its connexion with the vital interests of our country demands:—and especially that adequate means are not provided for training *men to the* important art of teaching. In those arts which contribute to the bodily comfort and fashionable appearance of our children, we seek to employ the skilful; and shall we give their minds in charge to ignorance and to pedantry? Shall the destinies of our posterity and of our country be confided to superficial thinkers, to half educated scholars, to unenlightened and unprincipled pretenders? Genius of Republicanism, forbid it! Spirit of Christianity, avert it!

AMERICAN LYCEUM.

Remarks on Lyceums, made at a late Meeting in Boston, by Rev. Mr. Rand.

Mr. Chairman—

I suppose that the plan of association which has received the name of American Lyceum, has not been fully matured; and I am by no means sure that I correctly understand it, so far as it is arranged and adopted. As I understand it, however, it embraces several particulars which I will notice.

It contemplates the formation of *libraries*, and the collection of a small *apparatus*, in every town, for the use of the young in

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the pursuit of knowledge. The library will be of a select and appropriate character. The apparatus will be of the more simple kind, adapted to illustrations and experiments.

It contemplates a system of *mutual instruction*. It proposes that the youth of a town or village shall associate, to study together; to read the same books; to investigate the same subjects; to communicate to each other their several attainments; to secure and prolong the advantages of the schools to which they may have access; and to apply their whole common stock of theoretical principles to practical purposes.

It contemplates the aid of *occasional lectures*, in connexion with these mutual efforts; lectures on the more difficult subjects, at the most convenient seasons, by the gratuitous assistance of educated gentlemen in the several towns, or by professed and experienced teachers.

It proposes to afford assistance, not so much in literature, as in the exact *sciences*, and their *application to the useful arts and the business of life*. I know not that literary pursuits need be excluded; but the system appears to me to be better adapted to the latter purpose, and to be far more necessary to promote it.

Now, Sir, allow me to say that I regard the general introduction of the Lyceum as a very desirable object. I am much pleased with the system, because it is *economical*. I am acquainted with no other method, by which valuable knowledge can be acquired at an expense so moderate, and so entirely within the reach of all classes of the community. It brings to the doors of the people that which is now obtained only at a distance; and furnishes the means of a thorough practical education for a sum which can never be deemed a burden. Now in most places, the question of economy in regard to the acquiring of knowledge, is one of high consideration; in some, it is unavoidably so; and education must come at a small expense or never be obtained.

The Lyceum well *agrees with the modern principles of education*. I refer to the comparatively modern discovery, that the most effectual education aims not so much at filling, and crowding, and loading the mind, as in cultivating and exercising the mind itself. We begin to teach a child to think, to inquire, to investigate, to reason, to educate himself. This principle has not been entirely neglected, but in all ages and countries it has been surprisingly overlooked. It is still but little known and practically adopted; and our instructions need vast improvements in regard to it, from the lowest children's school to the highest

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seminary. The whole plan of the Lyceum is built on this grand principle of education; and where it is vigorously adopted, cannot but succeed.

I like the Lyceum, because it is *adapted to the genius of our population.* I now have in mind its *social* and *republican* character. In this age, and peculiarly in this country, we begin to know that no man livêth to himself alone. The whole economy of this community is becoming social. We are also republican in our feelings and habits. We love equality, and that elevation of character which is promoted by the general diffusion of knowledge. Republicans love to know something, and are pleased when permitted to impart information to others. Now this general diffusion of a system of mutual instruction, falls in perfectly with these inclinations of feeling. It will be found adapted to the social ond republican propensities of our population; and will contribute, in an eminent degree, to make the rising generation still more republican and still more social.

The Lyceum commends itself to my approbation, by its *practical* bearing. Theory and practice are to be immediately and intimately connected. Principles are to be discussed in their connexion with their practical results. The union of inquiries, the mutual instruction, the lectures, and every operation of the associates, will be adapted to the formation of practical men. And the means now in operation for the education of youth will have a fourfold value, when they shall receive such a powerful impetus towards the active and useful business of life.

I anticipate great benefit from this system, on account of its *moral* influence. The time of our young men and lads will be occupied in an entertaining manner; their social intercourse will be occupied with useful topics; they will be furnished with a rich variety of gratifications which leave no sting behind; they will be saved from those amusements which are useless or positively injurious; they will be kept from the tavern and grogshop, and all the scenes of temptation which await the idle and unguarded in villages and towns. They wish to have, and they ought to have, diversions or entertainments suited to the season of youth. It is of immense importance, then, that their entertainments should all be innocent; and as many as possible should be rendered useful, and perform an important part in the moral culture of their minds. I believe the system now under consideration will contribute to these objects, beyond all present calculation.

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This system appears admirable to me for its *simplicity*, and the facility with which it may be adapted to every neighbourhood and every subject of investigation within its wide range. It is suited to farmers, mechanics, merchants, and all the various classes of society, whatever may be their previous state of advancement in knowledge. It may operate in every town and neighbourhood, and in almost any conceivable circumstances where a thirst for knowledge exists, sufficient to introduce a Lyceum and secure for it a sedulous attention.

Shall I be told, Mr. Chairman, that my anticipations are *visionary*? I know not but time may convince me that they are so; but at present, I seem to myself to reason from sober fact and solid principle. I do not suppose that great and manifest results will be speedily produced. The operation of the system will require time. Give it a fair trial for a reasonable time, and I doubt not its results will be both certain and happy. Shall I be told that this plan will make *superficial* scholars? Sir, I trust it will not; for the sum total of my hopes from it are, that it will make them *thorough*. Not indeed extensively; not as finished scholars; not as men of great science. But, as far as they go through, scholars; men of thought and reason; practical men, well versed in the various parts of *a thorough popular education*.

Questions to be Discussed by Lyceums.

1. Would it be good policy and practicable, to establish a national Lyceum, or an institute for promoting a *national* education?

2. Can a Lyceum be established in every town in the United States, as a branch of the national institute?

3. Which is most difficult to conduct, the exercises of a Lyceum, or of a military company; and what their comparative expense and utility?

4. Why cannot persons, from fifteen to thirty years of age, conduct a course of *mutual* exercises, for their entertainment and instruction, as well as children composing an infant school, from one and a half to six years old?

5. Would it be good policy for county Lyceums to take measures to furnish all the schools within their districts, with a few articles of apparatus for familiar and practical illustrations, in the essential branches of a popular education?

6. Would it be expedient for Lyceums and school committees to employ a mechanic to paint upon the walls of all the school-

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houses in the county, a set of diagrams, to illustrate the important and practical principles of the geometry of surfaces, and their application to measuring boards, land, cloth, &c. at the expense of two dollars for a house?

7. Can public winter schools be divided to advantage, and the younger division placed under the charge of females?

8. Would it be practicable and expedient for county lyceums to employ or patronize itinerant lecturers, to give instruction in their several branches?

9. Can each town Lyceum procure a geological and agricultural survey of the town where it is placed, embracing the topography, ponds, streams, and application of water; rocks, minerals, soils, modes and success of agriculture?

10. Would it be good policy for agricultural societies to offer premiums to the Lyceums, which should effect the most complete geological and agricultural surveys?

11. Can Lyceums collect histories of the towns where they are established?

12. Which science is most practical and important in a system of popular education, geology or geography?

13. Is letter writing an essential exercise in a course of common education?

14. Which would be most extensively and permanently useful to a town, a Lyceum or academy?

15. Would it be expedient for clergymen to meet school teachers in their several towns once a week; also misses and lads at the same or another time, to aid and encourage schools, and intellectual and moral acquirements, and taste, among the younger members of their societies?

16. Is a Lyceum an article of expense or economy to the town where it is established?

17. Would popular education, or a society to promote it, be a proper subject for Thanksgiving discourses; and Thanksgiving evening a proper time for towns to hold meetings, to determine whether they will form lyceums, or take any measures to promote the interests of schools?—*Boston Recorder.*

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PESTALOZZI.

Pestalozzi was born at Zurich, 1745. He lost his father, a physician, very early, and was educated by pious relatives. His intention of entering the church was given up after an unsuccessful attempt at preaching, and he applied to the law. A disease, brought on by excessive and immoderate study, induced him to turn his attention to agriculture. He bought a small estate, where a frequent intercourse with the common people opened his eyes to the distressing condition of the lower classes. Pestalozzi was not the man who could witness misery without a correspondent feeling of compassion; he could not pass a wretched cottage without stretching out a friendly hand to the poor inmates, nor see a shivering orphan without taking it to his fireside. He began to feel contempt for the splendor of cold-hearted opulence, and indifference to all the knowledge which can be acquired from books;—he proposed to himself to study life; and the happiness of wiping off the tear from the orphan's cheek seemed of more value to him than all the glory of authorship. There were at that time in the canton of Berne, where Pestalozzi lived, many poor and neglected children. Pestalozzi took a number of them into his house, and became their guardian and instructer. But the expenses of this undertaking soon made him poor, for he was more benevolent than prudent, and the kind disposition of his heart rendered him an easy prey to every designing villain. The loss of property did not depress his spirits, nor did the sneering of worldly men at his folly damp his ardour for improving the state of the lower orders.

He was invited, in 1798, by the government of Unterwalden, to establish a school at Stantz, lately ravaged by fire during the revolutionary war, and he at once accepted the proposal, though he had neither the means of accomplishing the plan at his own command, nor was furnished with them by the State. The children came in crowds, flocking for relief and nurture, as well as instruction. The successful issue of his experiment made under these difficult circumstances is thus described:—'My first task was to gain the confidence of my pupils, and to attach them to me. The deserted state in which I found myself, all painful as it was, and the absolute want of assistance, were precisely what contributed the most to the success of my enterprise. Cut off from the rest of mankind, I turned all my cares and all my affections to the children; to me they were indebted

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for all the relief they received. I partook alike of their pains and their pleasures.

'In 1799 my school contained eighty pupils. Study was to them quite a novelty, and they attached themselves to it with indefatigable zeal, as soon as they began to perceive their own progress. When I have asked them after supper, "My children, which had you rather do, go to bed, or learn a little longer?" they would generally reply, that they would rather learn. The impulse was given, and their development began to take place with a rapidity that surpassed all my most sanguine hopes. When Altorf was reduced to ashes, I assembled them round me; and said to them, "Altorf is destroyed, and perhaps at this moment there are more than a hundred poor children without clothes to cover them, without a home or a morsel to eat. Shall we petition the government to allow us to receive twenty of them amongst us?" Methinks I still see the eagerness with which they replied, "Yes, oh, certainly; yes." But, replied I again, "Reflect well what you are about to ask; we have at present but very little money at our command, and it is very doubtful whether they will grant us any more in favour of these unfortunates. Perhaps it will be necessary for you to labour much more than you have ever yet done, and to divide with these strangers your victuals and your clothes: do not say then you will receive them among you, if you are not sure you will be able to impose upon yourselves all these privations." I gave to my objections all the force they were capable of. I repeated to them all I had said—to be sure they perfectly understood me; still they persevered in their first resolution. "Let them come," said they, "let them come; and if all you have stated should come to pass, we will divide with them what we have."'

His method effected a gradual and important improvement of the country schools in Switzerland, and other parts of Europe; and in 1818, still impressed with the necessity of educating the poor, he set apart two thousand pounds from the produce of a new edition of his works, for the endowment of a school for the lower classes. His indefatigable endeavours to accomplish this one great object, the generous disinterestedness with which he devoted to it his life and property—a life fraught with trouble and bitterness, which might have been spent in ease and comparative opulence, will always endear him to the recollection of mankind.—*Eng. Pub.*

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INTELLIGENCE.

AMERICAN LYCEUM.*

Proceedings in Boston.

A meeting was held at the Exchange Coffee House, on the evening of Friday the 7th November, to take into consideration the subject of the American Lyceum. The meeting was organized, by choosing the Hon. Mr. Webster to the chair, and Mr. G. B. Emerson Secretary.

Mr. Russell, the Editor of the Journal of Education, brought the subject before the meeting by making a few introductory remarks, and proposed several resolutions which were afterwards adopted.

He then begged leave to request Mr. Holbrook, who had been favourably placed to observe the immediate practical influence of the institutions in question, to state what he had observed to be their effects, particularly upon adults, in those towns in which they have been established.

In answer to his call, Mr. Holbrook gave an account of the establishment of branches of the Lyceum in several places in this and some of the neighbouring States, of the mode in which they had, in some instances, been conducted, and of the good effects which had already been produced by them.

He said that their immediate effect had uniformly been, to awaken a spirit of inquiry among all classes of the community, in relation to important subjects in agriculture, mechanics, and the parts of natural philosophy and other useful sciences, which admit of practical application to the business of those engaged in these useful pursuits.

The Hon. Mr. Everett expressed, in a few words, the interest he felt in the success of the institution. He stated some facts in relation to the good which was promised, and which had been effected, by similar institutions in this country and elsewhere; and remarked particularly upon the facilities which would be afforded by associations of the nature of the Lyceum, in procuring books and instruments, which individuals would not often be able to procure for themselves.

The Chairman made a few observations upon the benefit which would be derived by them who had not had great advantages of education, from the opportunities for improvement presented by these schools of mutual improvement.

The following resolutions were then read and adopted, viz:

Resolved, That this meeting regard with deep interest and cordial approbation the various indications of public sentiment on the subject of popular improvement, as expressed in the establishment of mechanics' institutions and local associations of different kinds, for the general diffusion of practical science and useful knowledge.

That this meeting consider the institution denominated the American Lyceum, as comprehending the chief objects of a general association for popular improvement, and for the aid and advancement of common education in primary and other schools.

That the extensive good already effected by this useful institution, and the reasonable expectation of its future progress, are such as seem to this meeting to commend it to the approbation and support of the community, and to render

* This name has been assigned to the institution, with a view to avoid limiting it, by a peculiar designation to any one class of the community, while its object is the benefit of all. A name of one kind or other is required for convenience' sake; and as this has already been extensively adopted, it would be well to adhere to it; although a more familiar term might otherwise have been preferable, could any single word be found which would suit the purpose.

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desirable the farther extension of its influence, by enlarging the number of its branch associations throughout the country.

That the present season of the year seems a peculiarly appropriate time for the establishment of local branches of the Lyceum, with a view to the immediate benefit of district schools.

That a committee be appointed to report to this meeting at the adjournment, in what way the most effectual aid may be afforded to the interests of the Lyceum.

It was then voted, that the Committee to be chosen, shall consist of three.

That Mr. Russell, Mr. Holbrook, and Mr. Emerson, be this Committee.

That the next meeting be held on Friday, 14th inst. at 7 o'clock, P. M. at the Exchange; at which time the Committee will report.

That the proceedings of this meeting be published, and that such gentlemen as feel an interest in the general object, be requested to attend at the adjournment of the meeting. Adjourned. DANIEL WEBSTER, *Chairman.*

G. B. EMERSON, *Sec'ry.* [Boston Advertiser.]

An adjourned meeting was held at the Exchange on the evening of Friday, the 14th, for the purpose of taking into consideration the object of the American Lyceum.

The Hon. Mr. Everett was, at the motion of Dr. Stevenson, called to the chair.

The Report of the committee appointed at the last meeting was called for, and, in the absence of the chairman of the committee, was read by Mr. Holbrook.

A separate Report of the Chairman of the committee was also read by the Secretary, which stated, that the ill health of the Chairman, had prevented the formation of a uniform and condensed Report, which it had been the intention of the committee to lay before the meeting.

Rev. Mr. Rand addressed the meeting upon the subject of Associations for Mutual Instruction, and the extensive good which might confidently be expected from their establishment.

Mr. G. H. Snelling moved that the Reports be recommitted to the same committee, with instructions to incorporate them into one, and report at an adjourned meeting.

The Rev. Dr. Lowell expressed his desire to learn, more particularly, the nature and objects of the institution in question, and seconded the motion for recommitment.

Col. Davis expressed a wish that the Report might be again read, as himself with many other gentlemen had not been present at the first reading; but in consideration of the lateness of the hour, consented to withdraw his request.

The question was then put on the motion for recommitment, which was carried.

On motion of the Secretary, it was voted that two members be added to the committee.

Voted, that Rev. Mr. Rand and Dr. Robbins be chosen for that purpose.

Voted, that the Secretary be directed to make public the proceedings of this meeting; and that all gentlemen interested in the subject of this meeting, be invited to attend at the adjournment.

Voted, that when this meeting adjourns, it adjourn to meet at the Hall of the Exchange, at 7 P. M. on Friday 21st inst. Adjourned.

GEO. B. EMERSON, Secr'y. EDW. EVERETT, Chair'n.

Mass. Journal.

An adjourned meeting was held at the Exchange Coffee House on the evening of Friday, the 21st inst., for the purpose of taking into consideration the subject of the American Lyceum.

The Rev. Dr. Lowell was chosen chairman, and G. H. Snelling, Esq. Secretary.

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The following report and resolutions from a committee appointed at a former meeting, were then read, and after some discussion, adopted.

The Committee, to whom the Report presented on the 14th was recommitted for revision, submit the following Report.

As the Lyceum is an institution which originated in places at a distance from this city, and the greater part of our community have not had an opportunity of being informed of its design, it may not be unappropriate to offer, in the first place, a description of *the objects and character* of the Lyceum. These are of two kinds, *local* and *general*. The *former* will be best understood by an account of a Lyceum, as it exists in a given vicinity.

A Lyceum, in this view of it, is a voluntary association for mutual improvement, holding weekly or other stated meetings for exercises in the form of lectures, conversation, or experiments, relating to subjects of practical science and useful knowledge.

The branches of this institution, already in operation, have varied in their subjects of attention, manner of conducting them, and consequent success. Some have confined their attention almost exclusively to the sciences. To give each science a portion of attention, the Society is divided into several classes, viz. a class of mechanics, one of chemists, another of astronomers, one of geologists, &c. Each class chooses a foreman, and occupies the floor and the attention of the society, according to agreement among the whole. When mechanics is the subject before the meeting, the foreman calls upon one of his class to illustrate the lever, another the screw, the wheel and axis, pully, &c.; making an application of each to the practical pursuits of life. A similar course is pursued by the class of chemists, geologists, astronomers, and others. Upon this plan, it is not uncommon for six or eight, or perhaps ten or a dozen, to take a part in the exercises in the course of the evening. Under proper regulations, any member present is allowed to question the persons making the illustrations, and to dispute any point he conceives to be erroneous. This sometimes leads to a full discussion of certain points, which never fails to fix them permanently in the minds of all present, and frequently introduces them as topics of general conversation, and among those, not members of the Society.

In other Lyceums the instruction is communicated more in the form of lectures, or dissertations, where the whole work of an evening devolves upon one or two persons, each one being left to choose a subject, to suit his taste, acquirements, and judgment. The subjects, however, are generally intended to be of a practical character, and treated in a plain, familiar way, fitted to the comprehension of all the members. Upon this plan lectures have been given upon chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, geology, railways, canals, powers and debilities of the stomach, the structure, diseases, and management of teeth, the structure and movement of clocks and watches, fruit trees, fruit, fuel, and various other subjects of agriculture and domestic economy.

Besides subjects of a scientific and definite character, some societies have occasionally, and others generally, introduced those of a more general or miscellaneous nature; involving principles of expediency, rather than science; and relating to government, law, political and domestic economy, agriculture, education, morals, &c. These are conducted in the form of common debates.

In some instances exercises particularly designed for young and inexperienced minds, such as reading, declamation, composition, particularly letter writing, also grammar and geography, have been introduced.

The plan of the General Society admits and supposes that each town, county, and state Lyceum, will manage its concerns on most points, in a manner perfectly independent of all the rest, and fitted to the views, pursuits, acquirements, taste, ages, and wants, of those coming within their sphere.

It will be seen at once, that upon whatever plan the exercises of a Lyceum are conducted, it answers the great and important purpose of introducing into family and social circles, proper and useful topics of conversation, and converts

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amusements and daily intercourse into great and powerful vehicles for diffusing knowledge, and for enlightening, purifying, and elevating the character of society.

From experiments already made by Lyceums, two results somewhat unexpected have been observed. First, that the natural diffidence and backwardness which the members sometimes have in attempting illustrations, very soon wholly disappear; and they enter upon them as readily and cheerfully as they do upon any exercise in their ordinary pursuits; and second, that the principles and subjects of discussion at their meetings, become in a short time, certainly and thoroughly, though insensibly, understood by most who attend them.

Persons of both sexes, of all classes, and of various ages, have imbibed the spirit, participated in the exercises, and enjoyed the benefits of Lyceums, in the various places where they have been established. Clergymen, teachers, physicians, lawyers, farmers, mechanics, and merchants, have each, without stepping far aside from their ordinary avocations, contributed to the instruction and entertainment of others, in these schools of mutual improvement. Each has illustrsted from his own pursuits, the wisdom of the laws, and the variety, the richness, and the abundance of the works of a benevolent and bountiful Creator. And while all have received from a common and inexhaustible fountain, the necessary instruction and the most ample materials, for success in their several callings, each is enabled by advancing his own interests, to add something to the common stock of happiness, and to aid in the common advancement.

The clergyman, by presenting to the view of his youthful and ardent aspirants after knowledge no less than of those who are already in the fruition of its varied pleasures, the variety, the simplicity, and the sublimity of nature, and the wisdom and the grandeur of the laws which it obeys, leads his auditors to see and to feel how wise, how good, and how great, is the author of them all, and how much this author deserves a cheerful and implicit obedience from themselves. Teachers, by resorting weekly to these fountains of common and mutual entertainment and instruction, have aided each other in their interesting and responsible profession, and by elevating their own characters, have been enabled to bestow a like elevation upon the character of the schools under their charge. Physicians have selected from their profession subjects of a popular nature and of common interest; and by freeing them from learned technicalities have been enabled to illustrate to attentive and delighted assemblies, the springs and operations of life, to point out the means of preserving health, and to warn against the intemperance which destroys it, and along with it, character, influence, and happiness. Without wandering far from their profession, lawyers have explained the various social relations of civil society and the means of improving and strengthening them, the principles of political economy, and the general policy of government, the importance of internal improvements and the means of advancing them, and by the aid of drawings and models, have illustrated the principles and advantages of canals, railways, and other facilities for internal commerce. Farmers have given plain, but sensible, practical, and useful dissertations upon the cultivation, use, and preservation of fruit, both large and small;—the management of gardens, fuel and other subjects of agriculture, domestic economy, and convenience. Neither have mechanics nor merchants been wanting in their contributions to the common entertainment and mutual instruction.

Besides attending meetings of common interest to both sexes and all classes, females have conducted a course of mutual exercises among themselves, by spending together during the summer, one afternoon a week for reading, composition, and improvement in the various branches of a useful education.

Young persons of both sexes who were too far advanced, or too much occupied to receive benefit from the daily instruction of schools within their reach, have, by the aid of professional teachers,—clergymen, or other individuals, (sometimes ladies,) competent and disposed to guide them,—carried on a course

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of weekly exercises, which have given them gradually but certainly and permanently a development and expansion of mind, and a refined and elevated taste.

On the subject of *general* Lyceums, (embracing several of the local institutions,) there is one grand principle, which must be distinctly and constantly kept in view. It is that every man must educate himself. Neither friends, nor money, nor schools, nor colleges, nor seminaries, ever did, or ever will effectually *educate* a single individual. It is *effort*, it is long, patient, and personal effort, which alone can raise a person to that intellectual and moral elevation, which is the privilege, and the dignity, of man. Consequently, the more personal, as well as intellectual, and moral effort can be induced, the more the objects of the Lyceum will be attained, the more society will be enlightened and improved, the more worthy will our race become, of the place they hold in the scale of being.

If this principle is correct, a society which has for its object the advancement of popular education, cannot fully effect that object, without embracing the whole community. Every town, village, and neighbourhood, must feel its influence, imbibe its spirit, and engage in its exercises. But although individual and personal effort is essential to answer any of the purposes of education, it is not all that is essential. Individual efforts must be united, concentrated, and combined; and hence the necessity, not only of individuals, but of towns, of counties, of states, entering into a mutual arrangement for the purpose of advancing, not only a popular and enlightened, but a national education. As far as is possible, it is desirable to be national and uniform in our pronunciation, our language, our views of political economy, measures of government, in our various distinct, but reciprocal interests, arising from climate, geographical and geological features and divisions of our country. Consequently, at the same time that it is desirable, for the purpose of giving life, energy, and efficiency, to a society for mutual instruction, that branches more or less minute, should extend themselves into every town, village, and neighbourhood, and that each branch should select and conduct its exercises in its own way, and in most respects be perfectly independent in its character and its operations. It is also important that every branch should be formed, with a view of uniting with others, that their efforts may be combined and their power augmented.

To give the institution such an organization that every branch may be at full liberty to fit its exercises to the wishes and the wants of those who compose it, and at the same time to receive the aid of other branches, and light from a general fountain, it has been proposed to have each town Lyceum a kind of *board of education* for the double purpose of the mutual improvement of its members, and the improvement of schools,—to be furnished with a deposit of apparatus, and a place of general resort for all classes and all districts of the town, and to have the meetings and exercises so arranged, that both sexes, and all classes, such as teachers, farmers, mechanics, &c. may be accommodated together or separately, according to the nature of the subject, or the wishes of the members.

To aid and strengthen the operations of town Lyceums, all in a county are to be united, by three *delegates* sent from each, to be organized into a county Lyceum, for the purpose of adopting measures to advance the mutual and general interests of the several branches they represent. A county Lyceum might take measures for the several branches to procure to better advantage than they could separately, apparatus, books, instruction by the means of lectures or otherwise, and perhaps they might own some more expensive articles of apparatus, to be removed from one town to another, for the benefit of the whole.

From each county Lyceum, one or more representatives may, if desirable, be sent, to organize a *State Lyceum or Board of Education*. This board to be divided into several committees; viz. one on school books, one on apparatus, one on school houses, and one on the essential branches in a system of popular

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education, the order in which they shall be introduced, the mode of teaching them, &c.

The specific objects and duties to be assigned to town, county, and state Lyceums, and a general union of the whole might be distinctly pointed out, and the modes of effecting them described, but as the formation of town Lyceums, is the immediate object to be effected, one or two suggestions on that subject will not perhaps be considered out of time, or improper. The first suggestion is the expediency of assigning *a day when the attention of the people of New England, generally, shall be invited to the subject of town Lyceums*, that an opportunity may be presented to the inhabitants of every town, to determine the question whether they think it expedient to form an auxiliary to a general society, but especially in relation to the winter schools, which are about commencing,—with the particular view of furnishing teachers with an opportunity and the means of improving each other, and, of course, of improving their schools.

The second suggestion is the expediency of recommending to all societies which have been or may be formed, to furnish *a depository of a few cheap and simple articles of apparatus*, to which teachers, and some of their eldest pupils, and others who are disposed, may resort, to illustrate, or see illustrated, some of the important branches of a practical education.

With a view to promote the interests of the Lyceum, the Committee would submit to the meeting the measures embraced in the following resolutions, which are,—

1st. That, as the Lyceum has, for a principal object, the aid of popular education, and as the present season is the time generally assigned for the opening of district schools, it would seem a favourable opportunity for the formation of Lyceums in those towns in which they have not yet been established. With a view, therefore, to facilitate an extensive and simultaneous operation of the Lyceum, this meeting would suggest the expediency of appropriating the second Monday of December to the object just mentioned.

2d. That, as the interest taken in the exercises of the Lyceum, and the benefit to be derived from them, depend, in a great measure, on the obtaining of suitable and cheap apparatus for experiments and illustrations, it be recommended to the Lyceums generally to procure, as early as may be convenient, such apparatus, specimens, and other facilities as have been offered by Mr. Josiah Holbrook.*

3d. That for the purpose of aiding the extension of the Lyceum, and promoting its general interests, as well as diffusing the benefits of the institution among our citizens, a committee be appointed, to report on the expediency of establishing a Lyceum in this city, and if such measure is deemed expedient, to report on the means of carrying it into effect.

Voted, that the former committee, with the addition of two members, be appointed for the object proposed in the third resolution.

Dr. J. G. Stevenson and Dr. H. Robinson were then added to the committee.

Voted, that the publication of the report and resolutions in the several newspapers of the state be requested.

Voted, that when this meeting adjourns it shall be to meet at such time as the above named committee may appoint. Adjourned.

CHARLES LOWELL, *Chairman*.

GEORGE H. SNELLING, *Secretary*.

* Arrangements have been made by this gentleman for furnishing Lyceums with specimens in mineralogy, and such articles of apparatus, &c. as are required for familiar experiments and illustrations. Orders from a distance will be attended to by him, if addressed to Josiah Holbrook, Boston.

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EDUCATION IN NEW JERSEY.

Extracts from a letter to the Editor,* dated

'*Princeton, N. J., October* 20, 1828.

'It will doubtless gratify you to learn, that efforts are making in this State, by the friends of education, to induce our legislature at their approaching session, which will commence on the twenty-eighth instant, to devise and put in operation an efficient system of common schools. Hitherto nothing has been done by our legislature to promote education, excepting the accumulation of a school fund, during the last ten years, which now amounts to somewhat more than two hundred and twenty thousand dollars, and the granting of permission to the people of the several towns to tax themselves for the purpose of raising money for supporting schools.

'Many of the friends of education begin to think that it is time for our legislature to make appropriations from the interest of the school fund, and the bank tax which is now annually added to it, and which combined amount to something like twenty-two thousand dollars. It is believed that twenty thousand dollars granted annually from the State treasury to the several towns, upon the condition that they raise in addition, twice as much themselves, will give all the stimulus that is desirable from pecuniary aid. Twenty thousand dollars a year will be as much to our population of not more than three hundred thousand, as one hundred thousand dollars are to the population of New York, which cannot be much less than one million five hundred thousand.

'Whether we shall succeed remains to be ascertained.† Very few, if any, of our legislators have made themselves acquainted with the school systems of New York and New England, and the people are greatly afraid of being taxed. It is difficult to persuade them that they do now pay more, and gain less good, than they will upon the proposed plan. They, as well as our legislators, need light on this subject.'

NOTICES.

A History of the State of New-York, from the First Discovery of the Country to the Present Time. By F. S. Eastman. Designed for the use of Schools and for Families. New-York. E. Bliss.

The history of each State in the Union would evidently form an instructive and useful book to its own schools, as well as to adult readers in every part of the country. We are happy to see an attempt to supply the State of New York with this important aid to the objects of education, and not less to the diffusion of popular intelligence.

The accuracy of the historical statements embodied in this volume we would leave to the investigation of those who are more competent to decide than ourselves. But of the plan and arrangement of the volume, as designed to facilitate instruction, we feel at liberty to speak, and in terms of warm commendation.

* For the information communicated in this letter we feel much indebted to the writer. It came to hand, however, too late for our last number; and some additional intelligence mentioned in the letter has failed of reaching us.—Ed.

† Through some mistake, we presume, no further information has been forwarded.—Ed.

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The first three chapters are judiciously devoted to an account of the natural geography of the vast territory embraced within the limits of the State of New York. The history is then commenced, and, divided into suitable periods, is brought down to the date of the completion of the Erie canal. Some general statistic views of great interest, are added; and the volume closes in a very appropriate manner with biographical sketches of several distinguished men.

This book, we have no doubt, will prove a popular one in the State of whose history it treats. It will form a useful reading book for classes in all sorts of schools, and will give a salutary direction to the pursuits and habits of the young, wherever it is read with interest.

The Child's Primer, or First Book for Primary Schools. By J. Lamb. Burlington. Chauncey Goodrich. 1828.

A simple little manual like this, has been a desideratum for elementary schools. Worcester's Primer, of which notice was taken in an early number of the Journal, is, in some respects, excellently adapted to supply this want. But although it possesses many fine advantages, and most of these original in their character, it fails perhaps of carrying young pupils far enough, when it is used in primary schools. The Franklin Primer, when taken up immediately after Worcester's, furnishes, perhaps, all that is wanted previous to the Spelling Book. But the two books are seldom used, we believe, in connexion.

A little volume that would give the valuable features of each of these works, and go over the ground embraced in both, would be a useful aid to elementary instruction. The Child's Primer will, on the whole, suit this purpose; though in it there is still room for improvement. The typography needs a thorough revision. The 'new names' of the letters (by which the author intends their *powers* or *sounds*,—as mentioned by the Edgeworths, and fully carried out in the system of Fulton and Knight of Edinburgh, Angus of Glasgow, &c.) will need much explanation, if the author would avoid puzzling the generality of country schoolmasters, not to speak of schoolmistresses.

The introductory 'sections' of syllables will come more naturally and easily to the child, if placed *after* the reading lessons, in short portions, as they happen to occur in the reading, or can be introduced by way of analogies to those syllables which compose the words of each lesson.

We must say—but briefly, for our present space will not admit explanation—some of the author's corrections of phraseology are too critical for good taste or fair idiomatic expression.

In other respects this primer seems very well suited to the existing condition of the primary schools of New England.

BOOK FOR INFANT SCHOOLS.

We are gratified to learn that Mr Holbrook, (the founder of the Lyceum,) has in press a little work, which is designated to teach and illustrate the various terms commonly used, in describing the forms of objects. It is accompanied by a few cheap and plain models of solids, intended to furnish play and occupation and instruction in combination. The whole is meant to be used after the manner described in the lessons of Mr Wilderspin of the Spitalfields Infant School, London.

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